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an intensive course in English

IV

LESSONS IN VOCABULARY

Michigan University.

ENGLISH LANGUAGE INSTITUTE, STAFF

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INTRODUCTION

1. Assumptions.

Certain basic assumptions served as guides in the formation of these lessons in vocabulary.¹

First, these lessons are primarily aimed toward those students of English whose native language is Spanish. Many of the particular points touched upon are included because a speaker of Spanish can be predicted to have difficulty with them. For example, Lesson V includes the expression AS FAR AS contrasted with UNTIL solely because the Spanish speaker does not have distinct forms in his language for the two situations covered by the English expressions. He uses HASTA in both situations.

Viajaron HASTA Chicago
They traveled AS FAR AS Chicago.

Viajaron HASTA las seis.
They traveled UNTIL six o'clock.

Unless explained and practiced, the result is such sentences as "He traveled until Chicago." This does not preclude the use of the materials for students with other language backgrounds. The lessons will, however, contain much that is unnecessary to those who speak languages other than Spanish, and will omit items that are necessary to those of other language backgrounds. They are to that extent less efficient for those persons. It is assumed then, that the users of these lessons will have Spanish as their native language or that the teacher will make the necessary adaptation for students of other linguistic backgrounds.

Second, the lessons are not aimed at rank beginners. They are rather aimed at the average student of the English Language Institute of the University of Michigan, a student who has had some training in English but whose experience is still limited. Hence, it is assumed that the student will have had contact with many items before beginning these lessons.

Third, the vocabulary lessons treat in general, the lexical matters of English. There are, however, a few matters that could equally well have been treated in the grammar materials. It is assumed that these lessons will be used in conjunction with the correlative texts in grammar and pronunciation developed by the English Language Institute.

Fourth, the mastering of the sound system and the structural system has paramount importance in the beginning stages of language study. It is assumed that the burden of learning the lexical meanings of a great number of words will provide an unnecessary complication until real progress has been made in grasping the sound and structural system. The vocabulary in this first volume is, as a result, limited.

2. Selection of Materials.

The problem of selecting materials for lessons in vocabulary is quite different from the problem of selecting suitable pronunciation or grammar materials. The English language has only some thirty-nine significant sound contrasts in a limited number of combinations. After a valid analysis has been made, the problem of pronunciation teaching is not so much one of selecting items to teach as it is one of deciding upon order and emphasis within a limited system. Likewise the grammatical patterns of English are limited in number. In the case of vocabulary, however, even our large unabridged dictionaries do

¹For the theory behind the lessons in Vocabulary, see Charles C. Fries, Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language, Chapter IV, "The Words: Mastering Vocabulary Content."

not include the complete lexicon of English. No course in English can possibly aim at the grasp of the entire lexicon of English as its goal. The first great problem in forming vocabulary texts is that of selecting what items to teach.

One can conceivably use the various frequency lists to establish a working vocabulary for the foreign student. There are some difficulties here, however. First, most frequency lists are based on counts of written English. We cannot assume that the vocabulary of written English is the same as the vocabulary of spoken English. One has only to look at any newspaper to observe the difference. When one probes a bit further, he finds that many counts are based on spelling similarities alone. These counts lump together all kinds of words. Frequently different parts of speech are counted together. For example, the word SEPTEMBER in the Thorndike-Lorge Teacher's Word Book of 30,000 Words, is given the frequency A, indicating that the word appears between 50 and 100 times per million words. The word MAY, however, has a frequency of AA, 100 or more occurrences per million words. This frequency difference of two near-equivalent words surprises us until we discover that the frequency of MAY also includes a count of the so-called modal auxiliary uses.¹ Methods which, like Basic English, purport to use vocabulary of a few hundred words give a false impression, for the number of lexical meanings involved in those few hundred words is many times the number of words listed. And when one discovers, as Fries has pointed out, that the 500 most frequent words in English have 14,070 different meanings listed in the Oxford English Dictionary, the use of frequency lists seems to have little validity, at least in the beginning phases of vocabulary teaching.

Even if one attempts to count meanings, the problem of deciding which meanings to teach remains a knotty one. The borderline between two meanings of the same spelling form is not always easy to delineate. For instance notice the various meanings of IN in the examples below: (See Lesson IV.)

- a) The pencil is IN the desk. (The pencil is contained by the desk.)
- b) He arrived IN June. (He arrived during the month of June.)
- c) They persisted IN their argument. (They continued their argument.)
- d) He broke IN his new pipe. (He prepared his pipe for regular smoking.)

In view of this difficult problem these texts approach vocabulary selection from a different point of view. The frequency of any item is made subordinate to the frequency and usefulness of a situation area. The conversations in the first ten lessons are based on the collected opinions of a number of experienced teachers in the English Language Institute as to what these important areas are. The teachers agreed that the following areas should have a high priority in teaching: a) The formulas of greeting, b) food, c) numbers, d) money, e) place words, f) time words, and g) the human body.

Some items have a somewhat wider use, not limited to any one area. These extra-area words are also included. In these first ten lessons, for example, are found IN, ON, AT, in expressions of time and place, GET, and some function words of place and direction.

The large body of words which Spanish and English have in common made obligatory the use of cognate words. These are presented in regular patterns of correspondence were gleaned from the Institute Cognate List, a list of some 1600 items, and are presented with examples. Some recurrent false cognates are also included.

¹For a more comprehensive discussion of word lists than the above, see C. C. Fries and A. Aileen Traver, English Word Lists, American Council on Education, Washington, D.C., 1940.

3. Techniques.

a) Presentation techniques. Lexical items "mean" the situation in which they are used.¹ The task of the teacher is that of recreating that situation, and attaching groups of lexical items to the experience of the student rather than to his native language, for it is extremely doubtful if two words in different languages are ever used in precisely the same circumstances.²

The situation may be recreated in various ways. One method that is useful is that of PICTURES, cut from magazines, or sketched on the blackboard.

Another is the verbal description of experience, using words that are already known to the students. In this connection the use of self-defining sentences is helpful; sentences such as:

Class is at 8. Mary arrived at 8:10. She was LATE.

Class is at 8. John arrived at 7:50. He was EARLY.

Here, the meaning of the underlined words is clear from the other words in the utterances.

Actions by the teacher are useful to a limited extent. In teaching the place meanings of IN and ON a piece of chalk held alternately IN the closed hand and ON the open hand can be used to demonstrate one phase of their meanings.

Explanations with cognates are useful. Here there is an attaching to the experience of the student through his own language, and there is always the danger that the student's language will obscure the explanation, but, handled carefully, explanation "in cognate" effective.

b) Practice Techniques. Explanation by itself is insufficient. Every effort must be made to practice the meanings taught, in order to reduce them to the habit level. There are many different ways to practice meanings. Some of those found most useful are:

1. Conversation dialogs. These are helpful in direct proportion to their usefulness in ordinary conversation. In general, conversation dialogs should describe certain recurrent situations - situation that occur again and again; greetings, buying things, answering questions about addresses, etc. If laboratory facilities are available, dialogs may be recorded for student listening. They should be memorized.

2. Oral Meaning Pattern Practice.³ These practices are conversations rigidly controlled by the teacher, and repeated by the student until the material practiced has become part of the complex of language habits of the student. Some possible techniques follow:

¹C. C. Fries, Op. cit., pp. 43.

²Spanish BANCO, for example, is often equated with English BANK. To a certain extent this is true, but one must be very careful in equating it in such a manner. If English BANK is used in situations of money, the Spanish BANCO is one equivalent. If, however, a BANK OF A RIVER is meant, Spanish uses ORILLA. On the other hand, BANCO is also used in Spanish in situations which English would require the word BENCH.

³Edward M. Anthony, "The Pattern Practice of Meanings," Language Learning, Volume II, Number 3, 1949, p.83. Robert Lado, "Pattern Practice" Completely Oral," Language Learning, Volume I, Number 1, 1948, p. 24.

Simple substitution.

Here the student supplies the item being practiced within a frame supplied by the teacher. The teacher gives the frame orally first, then asks the student to repeat it. Eventually, the frame is used as a response to a verbal stimulus supplied by the teacher. The exercise below is used to practice **MUST**.

Teacher: I want to learn English. (Speak)
Student A: You must **SPEAK** it.
Teacher: I want to learn English. (Practice)
Student B: You must **PRACTICE** it.

Automatic alternation.

Some words in English have very little meaning of their own, depending for the most part on some other element in the sentence. For example, in the exercise below, the use of **IN**, **ON**, **AT** depends on the word following it. **IN** is used with cities and states, **ON** with the name of a street, and **AT** with the number of a house.

Teacher: He lives in Chicago. (Main Street.)
Student A: He lives on **MAIN STREET**.
Teacher: He lives in Chicago. (1111 Catherine Street.)
Student B: He lives at **1111 CATHERINE STREET**.

Lexical forcing.

Here the object is to force the student to supply the correct item, for if he does not, the resulting sentence is incorrect, and the error is easily detectable.

Teacher: He had breakfast in the morning. (At noon.)
Student A: He had lunch **AT NOON**.
Teacher: He had breakfast in the morning. (In the evening.)
Student B: He had dinner **IN THE EVENING**.

Production-recognition.

For alternate methods of describing the same situation, the production-recognition exercise is valuable. Here the teacher gives the recognition item and the student supplies the equivalent production item. In the exercise below, **SEVEN FORTY-FIVE**, and **EIGHT THIRTY** are used for production because of their regularity, **QUARTER TO EIGHT** and **HALF-PAST EIGHT** for recognition because of their frequency of occurrence.

Teacher: It's quarter to eight.
Student A: It's seven forty-five.
Teacher: It's half past eight.
Student B: It's eight thirty.

Exercises are given for each mayor point presented. The teacher may wish to expand or supplement some of the exercises.

3. Advanced exercises. Advanced classes can practice by taking part in debates, giving speeches, taking notes, etc.¹

¹Edward M. Anthony, "Speech Making and Note Taking as an Aid to Language Learning," Language Learning, Volume I, Number 3, 1948, p. 23.

INTRODUCTORY LESSON

1. Introductory Conversations
2. Cognate Words
3. False Cognates

1. Introductory Conversations

These conversations are here presented as a rapid means of providing students with utterances immediately useful in practical situations. Conventional orthography shows the teacher's part of the dialogue. The teacher should be careful to use the final-fall intonation curves in asking the questions.

a) Classroom

Teacher. Where are you from?

Student. [aɪ dɒnt ʌndə'stænd]

Teacher. Where are you from?

Student. [plɪz tɒk 'slɒli]

Teacher. Where are you from?

Student. [plɪz rɪ'pi:t]

Teacher. Where are you from?

Student. [aɪ ʌndə'stænd naʊ aɪm frəm venə'zweɪə]

b) Identification

Teacher. What is your name?

Student. [maɪ nem ɪz hwan 'pərəz]

Teacher. Where are you from?

Student. [aɪm frəm venə'zweɪə]

Teacher. Where do you live?

Student. [aɪ liv ən 'men 'strɪt]

Teacher. What is your phone number?

Student. [maɪ fɒn nʌmbər ɪz tu fɔː fɑːv naɪn 'wən]

Teacher. What is his phone number?

Student. [hɪz fɒn nʌmbər ɪz θri sɪks 'sevn 'et]

Teacher. When did you arrive?

Student. [aɪ əraɪvd 'jestərdɪ]

Teacher. Do you understand?

Student. [yes aɪ ʌndə'stænd]

c) Introduction Monologue

[maɪ nem ɪz hwan 'pərəz]

[aɪm frəm venə'zweɪə]

[aɪ bɪɡɪn klæs təˈmɔːro]

[aɪm ɪn ðə yunartɪd stɛts tu stædɪˈæɡrɪkəlʃər]

2. Cognate Words

English and Spanish have descended from the same ancient language. For this reason, and because English has borrowed words from Latin, French, and Spanish, we can find relations between the two languages. Students will know some of the meanings of many English words without studying them. For example, the English words COMPLETE, TOURIST, and ACTION have a similarity to the Spanish words COMPLETO, TURISTA, and ACCION. We call words of this type cognate words. The English pronunciation is always different from the Spanish pronunciation. The English word is always used in a partially different group of situations than the Spanish word. The teacher will help you to learn the new pronunciation and to apply the word to the correct situation. In spite of these difficulties, a knowledge of cognate words is of great value, because it gives you an extensive vocabulary with little effort.

Some common correspondences between Spanish and English words are the following:

a) Spanish words terminating in -ción and English words terminating in -tion.

1. COMMUNICATION by telephone is very rapid.
2. Latin CIVILIZATIONS are very old.
3. You have an OBLIGATION to learn English.
4. The theory of EVOLUTION was established by Darwin.
5. This SECTION is advancing rapidly.

Notice the pronunciation of -tion and the syllable of primary stress.

kəmyunɪ	ke	ʃən
sɪvɪlɪ	ze	ʃən
ablɪ	ge	ʃən
ɛvə	lu	ʃən

b) Spanish words terminating in -dad and English words terminating in -ty.

1. There is a VARIETY of museums in Ann Arbor.
2. There are many small COMMUNITIES in Michigan.
3. Learning English in one day is an IMPOSSIBILITY.

Notice the pronunciation of -ty and the syllable of primary stress.

və	raɪ	əti
kə	myun	əti
ɪmpas	bɪl	əti

c) Spanish words terminating in -io and English words terminating in -y.

1. We do not recommend a Spanish-English DICTIONARY.
2. Study is NECESSARY.
3. Students need a SATISFACTORY pronunciation.

Notice the pronunciation of -y and the syllable of primary stress.

dɪk	ʃə	nɛrɪ
nɛ	sə	sɛrɪ

sætɪsfæktərɪ

d) Spanish words terminating in -e and English words terminating in a final consonant.

1. He claims he is a DESCENDENT of the pilgrims.
2. PRESIDENT Roosevelt was an INTELLIGENT man.

Notice the pronunciation of these words.

	prɛ	zɪ dɛnt
in	tɛ	lɪ ʃɛnt

disɛndənt

e) Some Spanish words in -ar are English words terminating in -ate.

1. The air does not CIRCULATE freely in the summer.
2. The girl OPERATE the typewriter.
3. "In the beginning God CREATED the heaven and the earth."

Notice the pronunciation of these words.

sər	kyulet
ap	əret

criet

f) Spanish words terminating in -ia are frequently similar in meaning to English words terminating in -y.

1. It is easy to remember that MELODY.
2. The ECONOMY of China is not in good condition.

Notice the pronunciation of these words.

mɛ	lo dɪ
ɪ kan	ə mɪ

g) Spanish words terminating in -ar -er -ir are frequently equivalent to English words.

1. He DESCRIBES his country very well.
2. The teacher OMITS the last exercise.
3. Edison INVENTED the electric lamp.
4. The doctor PRESCRIBED penicillin.
5. We must UTILIZE cognates to learn English.

Notice the pronunciation of these words.

dɪ	skraɪb
o	mɪt
ɪn	vɛnt
pri	skraɪb

yutɪlaɪz

h) Spanish words ending in -o are sometimes similar in meaning to English words terminating in a consonant.

1. The ADJECTIVE precedes the SUBSTANTIVE in English.
2. Miss Gonzalez is noted for her OPTIMISM.
3. Coffee is a PRODUCT of Colombia.
4. Mr. Gomez is SINCERE.

Notice the pronunciation of these words.

æ	jektiv
səb	stæntiv
ap	təmizəm
pra	dəkt

i) Spanish words terminating in -a are frequently similar in meaning to English words terminating in a consonant.

1. He is a good PERSON.
2. Many TOURISTS go to Mexico.
3. Juan plays the GUITAR.

Notice the pronunciation of these words.

pər	sən
tur	ist

gitar

3. False Cognates

In the course of language history, some words which have a similar orthographic form in Spanish and English have developed radically different meanings. These words are called false cognates, and one must be very careful to use them correctly.

a) ACTUALLY is not used for AT PRESENT, NOW.

1. AT PRESENT the style of women's clothing is different from the style of 10 years ago. Transportation is more rapid NOW than it was 20 years ago. It is more efficient AT PRESENT.
2. I heard a lot of stories about the accident, but I don't know the truth. What ACTUALLY happened? Can you tell me what REALLY happened?

b) ASSIST is not used for ATTEND.

1. What did you do last night? I ATTENDED a lecture at 7. I ATTENDED a concert at 8:30 pm. When do you ATTEND your classes? I ATTEND them from 8 to 12 every morning.
2. Mary is a very good nurse. She ASSISTS her doctors very intelligently. She ASSISTS her patients very carefully. Yes, I know it. She HELPS doctors and patients very well.

c) LARGE is not used for LONG.

1.

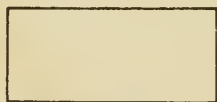
X

X is short.

Y

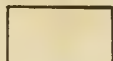
Y is long.

2.



Xa.

Xa. is large.



Xb.

Xb. is small.

d) SUCCEED is not used for HAPPEN, OCCUR.

1. What HAPPENED to John? He looks terrible! His eyes are black and blue. He was in an accident.
2. John wanted to become a doctor. He studied and worked at the university for 10 years. He SUCCEEDED in becoming a doctor after 10 years.

e) SYMPATHETIC is not used for PLEASANT, NICE, AGREEABLE, LIKEABLE.

1. We like Mary. She's a very PLEASANT person. She's a NICE person to talk to. She has many friends because she is very LIKEABLE.
2. I have a SYMPATHETIC friend. He understands me. He knows how I feel. He knows the difficulty I have had. He is COMPASSIONATE.

f) CAREER is not used for COURSE, COURSE OF STUDIES.

1. What COURSE did you take in high school? I took commercial courses: business, accounting, bookkeeping. John took a college preparatory COURSE. He studied foreign languages, history, biological sciences, and mathematics. He had an interesting COURSE OF STUDIES.
2. MARY'S CAREER is an interesting one. She's a nurse at the University Hospital. The nursing CAREER is good for intelligent, patient, sympathetic, young women.

g) LECTURE is not used for a READING.

1. The READINGS for that course are very long. They are READINGS in American history. We had to read all the READINGS the professor assigned.
2. Did you attend the LECTURE on THE SPANISH LANGUAGE IN AMERICA? Yes, I did. It was a long LECTURE. The LECTURER spoke for 3 hours.

h) CONFERENCE is not used for LECTURE.

1. Did you attend the LECTURE on THE SPANISH LANGUAGE IN AMERICA? Yes, I did. It was a long LECTURE. The LECTURER spoke for 3 hours.
2. Did you attend that CONFERENCE on THE IMPLICATIONS OF THE ATOMIC BOMB? Yes, I did. It was a very stimulating series of lectures and conversations. The CONFERENCE was from Monday to Saturday.

i) LIBRARY is not used for BOOK STORE.

1. I bought three textbooks at the BOOK STORE. They were very expensive. They have many other useful things in the BOOK STORE.
2. Every city has a public LIBRARY where books can be read or borrowed for a period of approximately 15 days. The University has a large LIBRARY. It is called the General LIBRARY.

j) PROFESSOR is not used for teacher.

1. The people that work in the English Language Institute are TEACHERS. They are NOT called TEACHER NYE or TEACHER DYKSTRA. They are called MISS NYE or MR. DYKSTRA. People that work in primary and secondary schools are also called TEACHERS. They are not called PROFESSORS.
2. Some people who work in the University are called PROFESSORS. Others are called INSTRUCTORS, ASSISTANT PROFESSORS, and ASSOCIATE PROFESSORS. They are sometimes called Professor Smith, Professor Jones, etc. They are sometimes called Mr. Smith, Mr. Jones, and Dr. Smith or Dr. Jones.

LESSON I

VOCABULARY

1. The Formulas of Social Contact.
 - a) Introductions
 - b) Greetings and Leave-takings
 - c) Expressions of Pardon
2. Time Expressions (A.)
 - a) IN, ON, and AT used with terms for months, days, and hours.
3. Conversation for Memorization.
4. The words NICE, TIRED, BUSY, SICK, HOMESICK, DISCOURAGED, RIGHT, HUNGRY, SLEEPY, COLD, HOT.

1. The Formulas of Social Contact.

Certain combinations of words are used as formulas in social situations. It is not necessary to analyze these formulas grammatically, but to learn them as units for application to particular situations.

a) Introductions.¹

Observe the forms of Introductions.

James knows Mr. Lane. James knows Thomas. Mr. Lane doesn't know Thomas. Thomas doesn't know Mr. Lane.	
James:	Mr. Lane, this is Thomas Martin. He's a student. ↘
Mr. Lane:	How do you do.
Thomas:	How do you do.
After the conversation, these formulas are frequently used:	
Thomas:	It was nice <u>to meet</u> you.
Mr. Lane:	Thank you. It was nice <u>to meet</u> you.

Exercise:

Teacher: Dr. A., this is Mr. B. Mr. B. is a student. [student]²
 Student A: How do you do.
 Student B: How do you do.
 Student A: Mr. B., this is Mr. C. Mr. C. is a lawyer. [lawyer]
 Student B: How do you do.
 Student C: How do you do.

¹We frequently extend our hands during introductions. We occasionally do not extend our hands. Individual customs of introductions in the United States are frequently different. Foreign students should note personal customs.

²Words of more than one syllable have one longer and louder syllable. A heavy acute accent ['] indicates the stressed syllable in these texts, usually when a word is first introduced. Words of more than two syllables have a secondary stress in American English. However, if Spanish-speaking students have learned the point of primary stress, the location of secondary stress ordinarily provides no difficulty.


Student B: Mr. C., this is Dr. D. Dr. D. is a dentist. [dɛntɪst]

Continue the exercise, using:


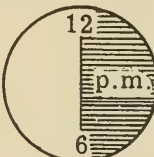
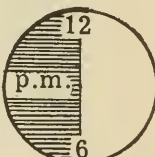
teacher [ti:tʃər] instructor [ɪnstɹəktər] nurse [nɜ:rs] engineer [ɛnʃɪnɪr]
doctor [daktər] professor [prəfɛsər] clerk [klɜ:k] architect [a:kɪtɛkt]


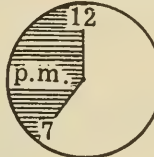
b) Greetings and Leave-takings.

Methods of saying HELLO



Hello
[həlo]¹

7 a.m. - 12 noon	12 noon - 6 p.m.	6 p.m. - 12 midnight
		
Good morning [gud mɔ:niŋ]	Good afternoon [gud æftərnun] ²	Good evening [gud i:viŋ]

Methods of saying GOODBYE	7 p.m. - 12 midnight
	
Goodbye [gudbaɪ] ³	Good night [gudnaɪt]

Thomas:	Good morning, how are you?
Mr. Lane:	Fine. How are you?
Thomas:	Very well, thank you

We frequently use HOW ARE YOU? in addition to the greetings above.

Exercise 1: HELLO.

Teacher: (8 a.m.)
Student A: Good morning.
Teacher: Good morning. (3 p.m.)
Student B: Good afternoon.

¹HI, [haɪ], is a less formal method of saying HELLO.
²HELLO is probably more frequently used than GOOD AFTERNOON in this situation.
³SEE YOU LATER, [si yu letər] and SO LONG [so lɒŋ] are less formal methods of saying GOODBYE.

Teacher: Good afternoon. (7 p.m.)
 Student C: Good evening.
 Teacher: Good evening. (9 a.m.)

Exercise 2: GOODBYE.

Teacher: 8 p. m.
 Student: Goodnight.
 Teacher: Goodnight. (3 p.m.)
 Student: Goodbye.
 Teacher: Goodbye.

Exercise 3: HOW ARE YOU?

Teacher: Good morning, how are you?
 Student A: How are you?
 Teacher: Very well, thank you.
 Student A: Hello, how are you?
 Student B: Fine. How are you?
 Student A: Very well, thank you.
 Student B: Good evening, how are you?

Continue the exercise. Note the intonation.

c) Expressions of Pardon.

Causing inconvenience

John accidentally steps on Mary's toe.	
John:	Pardon me.
Mary:	That's all right.
John and Mary enter the theater after the film begins. The sole seats are in the center. John says as he enters:	
John:	Pardon me.
The persons inconvenienced answer:	Surely

Withdrawal

John, Mary and Mr. Williams are eating. It is time for John to leave.	
John:	Excuse me.
Mary and Mr. Williams:	Surely

Interruption

John and Mr. Williams are conversing. Mary interrupts. She says:	
Mary:	Please excuse me.

2. Time Expressions (A.)

a) IN, ON, and AT used with terms for months, days, and hours.

When did you arrive?	In	January.
	In	July
	In	September
The names of the months are preceded by IN.		

The Months

1. January	[jænyuweri]	7. July	[jəlaɪ]
2. February	[fɛbyuweri]	8. August	[ɔgəst]
3. March	[marʃ]	9. September	[sɛptɛmbər]
4. April	[ɛprɪl]	10. October	[aktóbər]
5. May	[me]	11. November	[novɛmbər]
6. June	[jun]	12. December	[disɛmbər]

When did you arrive?	On	Monday
	On	Tuesday
	On	Friday
	On	June first ¹
The names of the days are preceded by ON.		

The Days

Sunday	[səndɪ]
Monday	[məndɪ]
Tuesday	[túzɪ]
Wednesday	[wɛnzɪ]
Thursday	[θərzɪ]
Friday	[fraɪɪ]
Saturday	[sætərdɪ]

When did you arrive?	At	8
	At	12 (at noon)
	At	10
	At	8
	At	12 (at midnight)
	At	10
The numbers of the hours are preceded by AT.		

¹The ordinal number are used in dates. (See Vocabulary, Lesson V)

When did you arrive?	On	January 1st.	[fərst]	30th.	[θərtɪəθ]
		2nd.	[sɛkənd]	31st.	[θərtɪfərst]
		3rd.	[θərd]		
		4th.	[fɔrθ]		
		5th.	[fɪfθ]		
		20th.	[twántɪəθ]		
		21st.	[twántɪfərst]		
		23rd.	[twántɪθərd]		

When did you arrive?	Yesterday Last night
YESTERDAY and LAST NIGHT are used alone.	

- In 1953

In June

On Monday

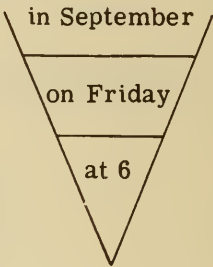
On September second

At 6

At noon
- IN is used with large units of time.

ON is used with intermediate units of time.

AT is used with "points" of time.



Exercises:

- Teacher:

Student A:

Teacher:

Student B:

Teacher:

Student C:
- I arrived in June. (Tuesday)

I arrived on Tuesday.

(6)

I arrived at 6.

YESTERDAY.

I arrived yesterday.

Continue the exercise.

- Teacher:

Student A:

Teacher:

Student B:

Teacher:

Student C:
- I arrived in June . (On)

I arrived on Tuesday.

(At)

I arrived at noon.

(In)

I arrived in July.

Continue the exercise.

3. Conversation for Memorization.

- Student A:

Student B:

Student A:

Student B:

Student C:
- Good Morning Mr. B., how are you?

Fine, Mr. A., how are you?

Fine. Mr. B., this is Mr. C.

How do you do?

How do you do?

4. The words NICE, TIRED, BUSY, SICK, HOMESICK, DISCOURAGED, RIGHT, HUNGRY, THIRSTY, SLEEPY, COLD, HOT.

These descriptive words are useful for your grammar class. Observe that IS is used in all examples.

It is a pleasant and agreeable day. The weather is good.	It is a NICE day.
He is pleasant and agreeable.	He is a NICE man.
She worked from 8 to 5. She went to a meeting at 5:30. She is fatigued.	She is TIRED.
John has many activities. He is inter- ested in many things. He is always oc- cupied.	He is BUSY.

John has a fever. He is in bed.	He is SICK.
Mary is an American in Europe. She wants to go home. She has a nostalgic feeling for the United States.	She is HOMESICK.
Henry studied for his examination. He did not answer the questions well. He is sad.	Henry is DISCOURAGED.
Mary says that Detroit is the capital of Michigan. John says that Lansing is the capital of Michigan. Mary is wrong.	John is RIGHT.
John wants food. Mary wants a drink of water.	John is HUNGRY. Mary is THIRSTY.
Henry wants to sleep. He is tired. The temperature is 32° Fahrenheit. (0° Centigrade)	Henry is SLEEPY. I am COLD.
The temperature is 100° Fahrenheit. (38° Centigrade)	I am HOT.

LESSON II

VOCABULARY

1. Food and Meals.
 - a) Breakfast, Lunch, and Dinner.
 - b) Eating Utensils.
2. One-word Questions with WHO, WHAT, WHERE, WHEN.
3. Time Expressions (B.)
 - a) Words of Frequency - ALWAYS, USUALLY, FREQUENTLY, SOMETIMES, NEVER.
 - b) The word AGO; the Units of Time- the words MINUTE, HOUR, DAY, WEEK, MONTH, YEAR.
 - c) Time responses to the question HOW LONG- the words FOR, FROM...TO, UNTIL, ALL (DAY).
4. Special Problem: WANT and LIKE.
5. Conversation for Memorization.
6. The words HERE and THERE.

Review

- a) Teacher greets students with the greetings of Lesson I.
- b) Students repeat conversation in Lesson I-Part 3 from memory.
- c) Exercise:

Teacher: I arrived in June. (On)

Student: I arrived on Tuesday.



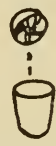

Teacher: (At)

Continue the exercise.

1. Food and Meals.

- a) Breakfast, Lunch, and Dinner.

Breakfast

We have breakfast [brékfəst] at 8 a.m. I have cereal for breakfast.			
 eggs	 coffee	 orange juice	 bacon

Exercise 1:





Teacher: I have coffee for breakfast. (Cereal)

Student: I have cereal for breakfast.

Teacher: (Eggs)

Continue the exercise.

Lunch


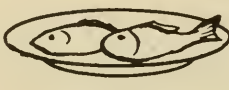


We have lunch at noon. I have sandwiches [sæ̀ndwɪcəz] for lunch.			
 soup	 salad	 bread and butter	 milk

Exercise 2:

Teacher: I have soup for lunch. (Salad)
Student: I have salad for lunch.
Teacher: (Sandwiches)

Continue the exercise.

Dinner¹

We have dinner at 6 p.m. We have dinner at noon on Sunday.			
 meat	 fish	 vegetables [vɛ̀jtəbəlz]	 potatoes

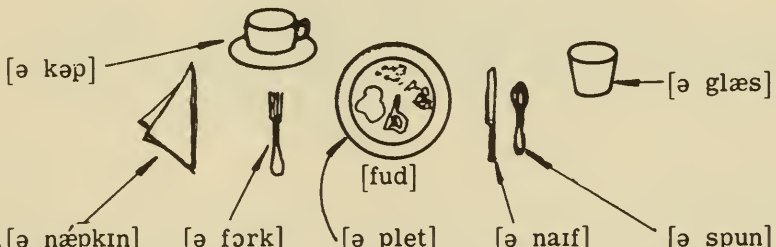
Exercise 3:

Teacher: We have fish for dinner. (Meat)
Student: We have meat for dinner.
Teacher: (Vegetables)

Continue the exercise.

b) Eating Utensils.

[ə tre]



[ə kəp] [ə glæs] [fud] [ə plet] [ə næpkɪn] [ə fɔrk] [ə naɪf] [ə spun]

This is a TRAY. There are dishes on it - a CUP, a GLASS, and a PLATE. There is FOOD on the plate. There are a FORK, a KNIFE, a SPOON, and a NAPKIN on the tray.

¹The word SUPPER is sometimes used in this situation. It usually means a small evening meal.

2. One-word Questions with WHO, WHAT, WHERE, WHEN.

Mary: I served the man. John: Who? Mary: The professor.	John: I know the student. Mary: Who? John: Henry.	Mary: I see the girl. John: Who? Mary: Helen.
WHO receives an answer designating a person. <u>Who?</u>		
Mary: I served breakfast. John: What? Mary: Coffee.	John: I know a language. Mary: What? John: Spanish.	Mary: I see it. John: What? Mary: The book.
WHAT receives an answer designating a person. <u>What?</u>		

Exercise 1:

Teacher: I know a student.
Student A: Who?
Teacher: John. I served breakfast.
Student B: What?
Teacher: Coffee. I see a girl.
Student C: Who?
Teacher: Mary. I know a language.

Continue the exercise. Use words that the class already knows.

Mary: He lives in Michigan John: Where? Mary: In Detroit.	John: Helen lives in France. Mary: Where? John: In Paris.
WHERE receives an answer designating a place. <u>Where?</u>	
Mary: Henry arrived. John: When? Mary: Yesterday.	John: Helen arrived. Mary: When? John: On Tuesday.
WHEN receives an answer designating a time. <u>When?</u>	

Exercise 2:

Teacher: The program ~~is~~ today. (Where?)
Student A: In Ann Arbor. The program is today. (When?)
Student B: At 8. The program is today. (Where?)
Student C: In Ann Arbor. The program is today. (When?)

Continue the exercise. Using WHERE and WHEN.

3. Time Expressions (B.)

a) The Words of Frequency - ALWAYS, USUALLY, FREQUENTLY, SOMETIMES, NEVER

Observe the following:

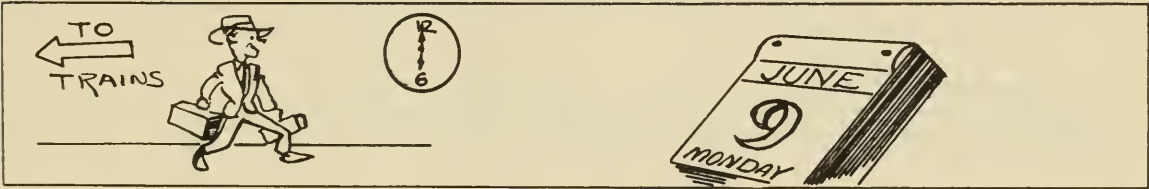
He has bacon for breakfast on Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday, Thursday, Friday, Saturday, and Sunday.		He ALWAYS [ólwız] has bacon for breakfast.
He has coffee for breakfast on Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday, Thursday, Friday, and Saturday. He does not have coffee for breakfast on Sunday.		He USUALLY [yúzuəli] has coffee for breakfast.
He has toast for breakfast on Monday, Tuesday, and Wednesday. He does not have toast on Thursday, Friday, Saturday, and Sunday.		He OFTEN [ófən] has toast for breakfast.
He has tea for supper on Sunday. He does not have tea on Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday, Thursday, Friday, and Saturday.		He SOMETIMES [sémtaımz] has tea for supper.
He does not have sandwiches for breakfast. He sometimes has sandwiches for lunch and dinner.		He NEVER [névər] has sandwiches for breakfast.
ALWAYS	100 per cent of the possible instances	S M T W TH F S
USUALLY	70 per cent of the possible instances (approximately)	§ M T W TH F S
OFTEN	50 per cent of the possible instances (approximately)	§ M T W TH F §
SOMETIMES	20 per cent of the possible instances (approximately)	S M T W TH F §
NEVER	0 per cent of the possible instances	§ M T W TH F §



Exercise:

Teacher: He has cereal for breakfast on Sunday, Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday, Thursday, Friday, and Saturday.
Student A: He always has cereal for breakfast.
Teacher: He has cereal for breakfast on Tuesday.
Student B: He sometimes has cereal for breakfast.
Teacher: He has cereal for breakfast on Sunday, Monday, Tuesday, and Wednesday.

Continue the exercise.

b) The word AGO; The Units of Time - The words MINUTE, HOUR, DAY, WEEK, MONTH, YEAR.



<p>He arrived at 6. It is 6:15 now.</p>  <p>He arrived 15 minutes ago</p>	<p>He arrived at 6. It is 8 now.</p>  <p>He arrived 2 hours ago.</p>	<p>He arrived on Monday. It is Wednesday now.</p> <table border="1"><tr><td>S</td><td>M</td><td>T</td><td>W</td><td>TH</td><td>F</td><td>S</td></tr></table> <p>He arrived 2 days ago.</p>	S	M	T	W	TH	F	S																																																	
S	M	T	W	TH	F	S																																																				
<p>He arrived on June 9. It is June 23 now.</p> <table border="1"><tr><td colspan="7">June</td></tr><tr><td>1</td><td>2</td><td>3</td><td>4</td><td>5</td><td>6</td><td>7</td></tr><tr><td>8</td><td>9</td><td>10</td><td>11</td><td>12</td><td>13</td><td>14</td></tr><tr><td>15</td><td>16</td><td>17</td><td>18</td><td>19</td><td>20</td><td>21</td></tr><tr><td>22</td><td>23</td><td>24</td><td>25</td><td>26</td><td>27</td><td>28</td></tr><tr><td>29</td><td>30</td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td></tr></table> <p>He arrived 2 weeks ago.</p>	June							1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30						<p>He arrived in June It is August now.</p> <table border="1"><tr><td>May</td><td>June</td><td>July</td></tr><tr><td>August</td><td>September</td><td>October</td></tr></table> <p>He arrived 2 months ago.</p>	May	June	July	August	September	October	<p>He arrived in 1947 It is 1954 now.</p> <table border="1"><tr><td>1947</td><td>1948</td><td>1949</td><td>1950</td></tr><tr><td>1951</td><td>1952</td><td>1953</td><td>1954</td></tr></table> <p>He arrived 7 years ago.</p>	1947	1948	1949	1950	1951	1952	1953	1954
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Exercise:

Teacher: I arrived in September. It is November now.
Student A: You arrived 2 months ago.
Teacher: He arrived at 7. It is 9 now.
Student B: He arrived 2 hours ago.
Teacher: She arrived at 7. It is 7:10 now.

Continue the exercise.

c) Time Responses to the Question HOW LONG, FOR, FROM...TO, UNTIL, ALL (DAY).

Observe the following sentences:

<p>Thomas: The students repeat. Mary: How long? Thomas: For one hour.</p>	<p>Mary: They attend class. Thomas: How long? Mary: For eight weeks.</p>
<p>FOR indicates duration when it is followed by a time word like MINUTE, HOUR, WEEK, MONTH, YEAR.</p>	
<p>John: The students practice. Mary: How long? John: From 8 to 12.</p>	<p>Mary: They Study English. John: How long? Mary: From September to November.</p>
<p>FROM precedes the beginning point and TO the final point of a period of time to indicate duration.</p>	
<p>Thomas: The students study. John: How long? Thomas: Until noon.</p>	<p>John: We are in class. Mary: How long? John: Until 2.</p>
<p>UNTIL precedes the final point of a period of time to indicate duration.</p>	

Note that in all the preceding examples HOW LONG receives an answer describing a period of time. ALL WEEK, ALL MONTH, ALL YEAR also are used to answer the question HOW LONG. ¹	
Mary: The students study. Thomas: How long? Mary: All week.	Thomas: They attend class. Mary: How long? Thomas: All year.

Exercise: Use FOR in answering the teacher's question.

Teacher: He studies. How long?
Student A: For 2 hours.
Teacher: He practices. How long?
Student B: For 1 hour.
Teacher: The students repeat. How long?
Student C: For 3 hours.

Continue the exercise. Repeat the exercise using FROM...TO, UNTIL, and ALL(DAY).

4. Special Problem: WANT and LIKE.

Observe the use of WANT and LIKE in the following paragraphs.

John has breakfast at 7. He has toast for breakfast. He never has toast for dinner.	He LIKES toast. He never WANTS toast for dinner.
Henry likes tea. George likes tea.	He never wants tea for breakfast. He always wants tea for lunch.
LIKE is used in situations which involve a preference or affection. WANT is used in situations which involve a desire or wish.	

Observe the use of WANT and WOULD LIKE in the following sentences.

He WANTS breakfast at 8. Mary WANTS a phonograph.	He WOULD LIKE breakfast at 8. Mary WOULD LIKE a phonograph.
The word WANT is generally equivalent to WOULD LIKE. WOULD LIKE is used in especially polite or diplomatic situations.	

Exercise:

Teacher: An aspirin.
Student A: I want an aspirin.
Teacher: The professor.
Student B: I like the professor.

Continue the exercise, using A FORK, THE DOCTOR, FRENCH, CONCERTS, A PHONOGRAPH.

Repeat the exercise. Students use WOULD LIKE in place of WANT.

¹ Note to the teacher: ALL is used with MORNING, AFTERNOON, EVENING, NIGHT also. These terms are presented in Lesson III. Advanced classes may be able to use these words in Lesson II.

5. Conversation for Memorization.

Student A: Good afternoon. How are you?
Student B: Fine. Would you like to have dinner with me?
Student A: Yes, thank you. Where?
Student B: At the restaurant.
Student A: When?
Student B: At 6.
Student A: Thank you. Goodbye.
Student B: Goodbye.

6. The words HERE and THERE.

These place words are useful for your grammar class. Observe their use in the following examples.

Thomas:	John is in Ann Arbor.
Henry:	Where?
Thomas:	He is not HERE with us. He is THERE with James.
George:	Mary is in this building.
John:	Where?
George:	I don't know. She is not HERE. She is THERE in the Office.
Mary:	I go to Detroit on Monday.
John:	Is Jane THERE.
Mary:	No. She is HERE.
HERE and THERE indicate different locations. HERE indicates a location near the speaker. THERE contrasts with HERE.	

LESSON III

VOCABULARY

1. Time Expressions (C.)
 - a) The expressions IN THE MORNING, IN THE AFTERNOON, IN THE EVENING, AT NIGHT.
 - b) The expressions YESTERDAY MORNING, THIS MORNING, TOMORROW MORNING, etc.
 - c) The word EVERY used with time words.
 - d) The expressions LAST WEEK, THIS WEEK, NEXT WEEK, etc.
 - e) The words BEFORE and AFTER; the word DURING.
2. Answers to the question WHAT TIME IS IT?
3. Conversation for Memorization.

Review

- a) Students answer the following, using AGO.

Teacher: When did you arrive? (Two years)
 Student A: Two years ago. When did you arrive? (Week)
 Student B: A week ago. When did you arrive? (Three days)
 Student C: Three days ago. When did you arrive? (Ten minutes)

Continue the exercise.

- b)

Teacher: He studies. (Who?)
 Student A: John. (When?)
 Student B: From 8 to 9. (Where?)
 Student C: Here. (What?)
 Student D: Grammar.
 Teacher: She pronounces. (Who?)

Continue the exercise, teacher using the following: He imitates, She speaks, He practices, etc.

1. Time Expressions (C.)

- a) The expressions IN THE MORNING, IN THE AFTERNOON, IN THE EVENING, AT NIGHT.

Observe the following:

When did you arrive?			
You know these.	In June	Learn These:	In the morning
	On Tuesday		In the afternoon
	At 6.		In the evening
			AT NIGHT
Note that the words MORNING, AFTERNOON, and EVENING are preceded by IN THE. Note the expression AT NIGHT. It is parallel to IN THE MORNING, IN THE AFTERNOON, IN THE EVENING.			

Exercise:

Teacher: When do you study? (Morning)
 Student A: In the morning.
 Teacher: When do you study? (Noon)

Student B: At noon.
Teacher: When do you study? (Afternoon)
Student C: In the afternoon.

Continue the exercise, using the following: 6 p.m., night, morning, Tuesday, evening, midnight, afternoon, night, June, etc.

b) The expressions YESTERDAY MORNING, THIS MORNING, TOMORROW MORNING, etc.

DIVISIONS OF YESTERDAY	DIVISIONS OF TODAY	DIVISIONS OF TOMORROW
yesterday morning	this morning	tomorrow morning
yesterday noon	this noon	tomorrow noon
yesterday afternoon	this afternoon	tomorrow afternoon
yesterday evening	this evening	tomorrow evening
LAST NIGHT	TONIGHT	tomorrow night
He studied ¹ grammar yesterday morning. He visited the hotel yesterday afternoon. They attended laboratory yesterday afternoon. Jean was in Chicago yesterday evening. Mary was in Detroit LAST NIGHT.	IT IS AFTERNOON NOW. PAST John studied grammar this morning. He ate lunch here this noon. NOW He is here this afternoon. FUTURE ² He is going to go ² to Chicago this evening. She is going to go to Detroit TONIGHT.	He is going to go ² to Chicago tomorrow morning. We are going to eat lunch here tomorrow noon. I am going to study tomorrow afternoon. They are going to study tomorrow evening. Mary is going to be in Chicago tomorrow night.
Notice that LAST NIGHT is different from the other expressions in the series.	Notice that TONIGHT is different from the other expressions in the series.	
The class 2 words in this series exhibit past form.	The class 2 words in this series exhibit past, present, or future form depending on the time of the conversation. Observe the following.	The class 2 words in this series exhibit future form.
	IT IS EVENING NOW: PAST John studied this morning. PRESENT John is here this evening. FUTURE John is going to be here tonight.	

¹See Grammar Lesson III for these class 2 forms.

²See Grammar Lesson V for these class 2 forms.

Exercise 1:

Students answer the teacher's questions with expressions using THIS (morning) etc. IT IS NOON NOW.

Teacher: John studied grammar. (When?)
Student A: This morning.
Teacher: Mary is going to study pronunciation. (When?)
Student B: Tonight.
Teacher: George studied vocabulary. (When?)
Student C: This morning.

Continue the exercise. Change IT IS NOON NOW to IT IS EVENING NOW.

Exercise 2:

Students answer the teacher's questions with expressions using TOMORROW(morning) and YESTERDAY (morning), etc.

Teacher: John arrived. (When?)
Student A: Yesterday morning.
Teacher: Mary is going to arrive. (When?)
Student B: Tomorrow afternoon.
Teacher: George arrived. (When?)
Student C: Last night.

Continue the exercise.

c) The word EVERY used with time words.

Observe the following:

He studies on Sunday, Monday, Tuesday, Wednes- day, Thursday, Friday, Saturday,		He studies EVERY day.
	in the morning.	He studies EVERY morning.
	in the afternoon	He studies EVERY afternoon.
	in the evening.	He studies EVERY evening.
	at night.	He studies EVERY night.
EVERY precedes the words MORNING, AFTERNOON, DAY, etc. to describe a regular series of repeated time units.		

Exercise:

Teacher: He studies on Sunday, Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday, Thursday, Friday, and Saturday.
Student A: He studies every day.
Teacher: He studies every day in the morning.
Student B: He studies every morning.
Teacher: He studies every day at night.
Student C: He studies every night.

Continue the exercise.

d) The expressions LAST WEEK, THIS WEEK, NEXT WEEK, etc.

TODAY IS WEDNESDAY JUNE 10, 1953.

LAST ———	THIS ———	NEXT ———
S M T W TH F S 1 2 3 4 5 6	S M T (W) TH F S 7 8 9 10 11 12 13	S M T W TH F S 14 15 16 17 18 19 20
PAST John attended the lecture last week. He visited Chicago last week.	PAST Mary studied vowels this week. (on Monday)	FUTURE John is going to go to Detroit next week. He is going to visit the art museum next week.
	PRESENT She studies consonants this week. (every day)	
	FUTURE She is going to go to the program this week. (on Friday)	
The class 2 words in this group exhibit past form.	The class 2 words in this series exhibit past, present or future form, depending on the time of the conversation.	The class 2 words in this group exhibit future form.
LAST, THIS, and NEXT are also used with days of the week, the months, and the word YEAR.		
Mary was here last Friday. She was here last month.(in May) John was here last year. (in 1952)	Mary was here this Monday. She is going to be here this Friday. John was here this month. He was here this year.	Mary is going to be here next Monday. She is going to be here next month. (in July) John is going to be here next year.

Exercise:

TODAY IS TUESDAY, FEBRUARY 23, 1954.

Students use LAST, THIS, and NEXT in answer to the questions.

Teacher: (February 25)
Student A: Next Thursday.
Teacher: (1954)
Student B: This year.
Teacher: (January, 1954)
Student C: Last month.

Continue the exercise, teacher using February 16; March, 1955; Sunday, February 21, etc.

e) The words BEFORE and AFTER¹; the word DURING.


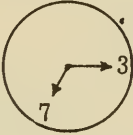
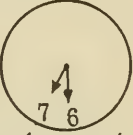



Vocabulary Class at 10 a.m.	Lunch at noon	Pronunciation Class at 1 p.m.
We have Vocabulary class before lunch. We study words during Vo- cabulary class.	We have lunch before Pro- nunciation class. We have lunch after Vocab- ulary class. We talk during lunch.	We have Pronunciation class after lunch. We study vowels during Pronunciation class.
BEFORE is used to describe a situation which precedes another situation. AFTER is used to describe a situation which follows another situation.		

Exercise:

Dinner From 5 to 6	Activity Hour From 6 to 7	Study Period From 7 to 9
The students have dinner. They ask questions. They drink tea.	The students go to activity They have a discussion. They see a movie.	The students study lessons. They drink coffee. They take a walk.
Teacher: When do the students study? Student A: After dinner. Teacher: When do they ask questions? Student B: During dinner. Teacher: When do they have a discussion? Student C: Before the study period.		

Continue the exercise.

2. Answers to the question WHAT TIME IS IT?

It's 7:05  [its sévən faɪv]	It's 7:15  [its sévən fɪftɪn]	It's 7:30  [its sévən θəɪrtɪ]
It's 7:40  [its sévən fɔɪrtɪ]	It's 7:50  [its sévən fɪftɪ]	It's 8:00  [its et]

¹ Note the difference between AFTER and AFTERWARD in the following:

We have pronunciation class AFTER lunch.
We have pronunciation class AFTERWARD.

The regular formula for expressions of time is HOURS:MINUTES.

For example:

Hour	Minutes
seven	forty-five
nine	twenty
eleven	fifty
three	ten

Exercise:

The teacher draws clocks on the blackboard, asking the students the question: WHAT TIME IS IT?

The recognition of other expressions of time.

at 7:15 [sévan fiftín] quarter after seven quarter past seven fifteen after seven fifteen past seven	at 7:30 [sévan θærtı] half past seven
at 7:20 [sévan twéntı] twenty after seven twenty past seven	at 7:45 [sévan fórtı faıv] quarter of eight quarter to eight fifteen of eight fifteen to eight

Exercise:

Teacher: It's half past seven. What time is it?
Student A: It's seven thirty.
Teacher: It's ten to five. What time is it?
Student B: It's four fifty.

Continue the exercise using the following:

It's half past twelve.	It's twenty-five after one.
It's twenty after four.	It's two to two.
It's five of one.	It's five of three.
It's noon.	It's fifteen of eight.
It's a quarter past nine.	It's ten to seven.
It's a quarter of nine.	It's twelve past six.
It's twenty-five after twelve.	

3. Conversation for Memorization.

John: Hello Mary, how are you this morning?
Mary: Fine, thank you. How are you?
John: Fine. Do you study history every day?
Mary: Yes. I study in the evening.
John: Did you study last night?
Mary: Yes, until midnight.

LESSON IV
VOCABULARY

- 1. IN, ON, AT used with addresses.
- 2. Numbers.
 - a) Cardinal Numbers
 - b) Ordinal Numbers
- 3. American Money.
 - a) Coins
 - b) Bills
- 4. Special Problem LEND, BORROW.
- 5. Conversation for Memorization.

Review

Students describe their activities, using the appropriate time expressions of Lesson III, such as YESTERDAY MORNING, THIS MORNING, TOMORROW MORNING, LAST WEEK, THIS WEEK, NEXT WEEK, etc.

1. IN, ON, and AT used with addresses.

Where do you live?		In	Ann Arbor
		In	Michigan
		In	Mexico
The names of countries, states, and cities are preceded by IN			
Where do you live?		On	State Street
		On	First Avenue
		On	Michigan Avenue
The names of streets are preceded by ON			
Where do you live?		At	1242 State Street ¹
		At	2457 Main Street
		At	724 Michigan Avenue
The numbers of houses are preceded by AT			
Note the similarity between IN, ON, and AT used with addresses, and IN, ON, AT used with time expressions:			
TIME When?	ADDRESSES Where?		
In June	In Michigan	IN is used with large units.	
On Monday	On State Street	ON is used with intermediate units.	
At 6	At 115 State Street	AT is used with "points"	

Exercise:

Teacher: Where do you live? (State Street)
Student A: On State Street.
Teacher: Where do you live? (723 Main Street)

¹These numbers should be pronounced as a series of cardinal numbers.

Student B: At 723 Main Street.
Teacher: Where do you live? (Mexico)
Student C: In Mexico.

Continue the exercise.

Teacher: Where do you live? (On)
Student A: On Main Street.
Teacher: Where do you live? (In)
Student B: In Michigan.
Teacher: Where do you live? (At)
Student C: At 756 Main Street.

Continue the exercise.

2. Numbers.

a) Cardinal Numbers.

1	one	[wən]	30	thirty	[θərtɪ]
2	two	[tu]	40	forty	[fɔrtɪ]
3	three	[θri]	50	fifty	[fiftɪ]
4	four	[fɔr]	60	sixty	[sɪkstɪ]
5	five	[faɪv]	70	seventy	[sɛvəntɪ]
6	six	[sɪks]	80	eighty	[étɪ]
7	seven	[sɛvən]	90	ninety	[náɪntɪ]
8	eight	[et]			
9	nine	[naɪn]	100	one hundred	[wən hándrəd]
10	ten	[tɛn]	101	one hundred and one	[wən hándrəd ən wən]
11	eleven	[ələvən]			
12	twelve	[twɛlv]	200	two hundred	[tu hándrəd]
13	thirteen	[θərtɪn]	300		
14	fourteen	[fɔrtɪn]	400		
15	fifteen	[fiftɪn]	500	As cardinals, these pattern as the first digit with HUNDRED.	
16	sixteen	[sɪkstɪn]	600		
17	seventeen	[sɛvəntɪn]	700		
18	eighteen	[étɪn]	800		
19	nineteen	[náɪntɪn]	900		
20	twenty	[twɛntɪ]			
21	twenty-one	[twɛntɪ wən]			
22	twenty-two	[twɛntɪ tu]	1000	one thousand	[wən θáuzənd]
23	twenty-three	[twɛntɪ θri]	1001	one thousand and one	[wən θáuzənd ən wən]
24	twenty-four	[twɛntɪ fɔr]			
25	twenty-five	[twɛntɪ faɪv]	2000	As cardinals, these pattern as the first digit with THOUSAND.	
26	twenty-six	[twɛntɪ sɪks]	3000		

Exercise 1:

Teacher writes the following numbers on the blackboard as he asks the questions: 2,3, 7,9,12,15,21,23,32,45.

Teacher: I have two books.
Student A: I have three books.

Teacher: I have seven books.
Student B: I have nine books.

Continue the exercise.

Exercise 2:

Students count by 2's to 20, 3's to 30, 4's to 40, etc.

b) Ordinal numbers.		1	2
1st	first		[fərst]
2nd	second		[sekənd]
3rd	third		[θərd]
4th	fourth	[fɔrθ]	
5th	fifth		[fɪfθ]
6th	sixth	[sɪksθ]	
7th	seventh	[sevənθ]	
8th	eighth		[eθ]
9th	ninth	[naɪnθ]	
10th	tenth	[tɛnθ]	
11th	eleventh	[ələvənθ]	
12th	twelfth		[twɛlfθ]
13th	thirteenth	[θərtɪnθ]	
14th	fourteenth	[fɔrtɪnθ]	
15th	fifteenth	[fɪftɪnθ]	
16th	sixteenth	[sɪkstɪnθ]	
17th	seventeenth	[sevəntɪnθ]	
18th	eighteenth	[etɪnθ]	
19th	nineteenth	[naɪntɪnθ]	
20th	twentieth		[twɛntiəθ]
21st	twenty-first		[twɛntɪ fərst]
22nd	twenty-second		[twɛntɪ sekənd]
23rd	twenty-third		[twɛntɪ θərd]
24th	twenty-fourth	[twɛntɪ fɔrθ]	
Column "2" contains forms which are not regular.			

Exercise:

Teacher writes the following numbers on the blackboard as he asks the questions: 5, 7, 8, 6, 12, 5, 20, 19, 21, 14, 22, 17, 23, 31, 2.

Teacher: When did you arrive? (May)
Student A: On May fifth.
Teacher: When did you arrive? (June)
Student B: On June seventh.
Teacher: When did you arrive? (January)
Student C: On January eighth.

Continue the exercise.

3. American Money.

a) Coins.

The Value of the Coin		The Name of the Coin
\$ 0.01	one cent	a penny
0.05	five cents	a nickel
0.10	ten cents	a dime [daim]
0.25	twenty-five cents	a quarter
0.50	fifty cents	a half-dollar
We have coins (metal money) of one cent, (a penny); five cents, (a nickel); ten cents, (a dime); twenty five cents, (a quarter); and fifty cents, (a half-dollar). One dollar coins are rare.		

b) Bills.

Number of Bills	Value of Bills	Total Value
one	one-dollar (\$ 1.00) bill	\$ 1.00
two	one-dollar (\$ 1.00) bills	2.00
three	five-dollar (\$ 5.00) bills	15.00
four	ten-dollar (\$ 10.00) bills	40.00
five	twenty-dollar (\$ 20.00) bills	100.00
Our common bills (paper money) are for one dollar, two dollars, five dollars, ten dollars, and twenty dollars.		

Observe the following:

Mary has a dime. She wants change. She wants two nickels. She says to John:

Mary: Do you have change for a dime?
John: Yes, I have two nickels.

John has a five-dollar bill. He wants five one-dollar bills. He says to Mary:

John: Do you have change for a five dollar bill?
Mary: Yes, I have five one-dollar bills.

Exercise 1:


Teacher: Do you have change for a five-dollar bill?
Student A: Yes, I have five one-dollar bills.
Do you have change for a ten-dollar bill?
Student B: Yes, I have two five-dollar bills.
Do you have change for a twenty dollar bill?

Continue the exercise.

Exercise 2:

Teacher: Do you have change for a half dollar?
Student A: Yes, I have two quarters.
Do you have change for a quarter?
Student B: Yes, I have two dimes and a nickel.
Do you have change for a dime?

4. Special Problem: LEND (LENT) and BORROW.

<p>Alice has a pencil.</p> <p>Alice is lending a pencil to Tom.</p> <p>Alice gives the pencil to Tom.</p>		<p>Tom wants a pencil.</p> <p>Tom is borrowing a pencil from Alice.</p> <p>Tom receives the pencil from Alice.</p> <p>Tom is going to give the pencil to Alice tomorrow.</p>
<p>BORROW...FROM and LEND...TO describe the same situation from different points of view.</p>		

Exercise:

Students pass articles from one to another, describing the situation and using the words LEND and BORROW:

- Teacher: I lend the pen. You borrow the pen.
- Student A: I borrow the pen.
- Teacher: I lend the pen to Student A. He borrows the pen.
- Student A: I borrow the pen from the teacher. I lend the pencil to Student B.
- Student B: I borrow the pencil from Student B. I lend the book to Student C.
- Student C: I borrow the book from Student B. I lend the paper to Student D.

Continue the exercise.

5. Conversation for Memorization.

- Thomas: I live at 624 Washington Street. Where do you live?
- Henry: At 738 Main Street.
- Thomas: Where is Main Street?
- Henry: It's the fifth street from Washington Street. I live in the third house on the street.

LESSON V
VOCABULARY

1. Some Words of Position.
2. Some Words of Direction.
3. Special Problem: AS FAR AS and UNTIL.
4. Conversation for Memorization.

Review

a) Cardinal and Ordinal Numbers:

Teacher: Today is March first. (Two)
Student A: Today is March second. (Three)
Student B: Today is March third. (Four)
Student C: Today is March fourth. (Five)

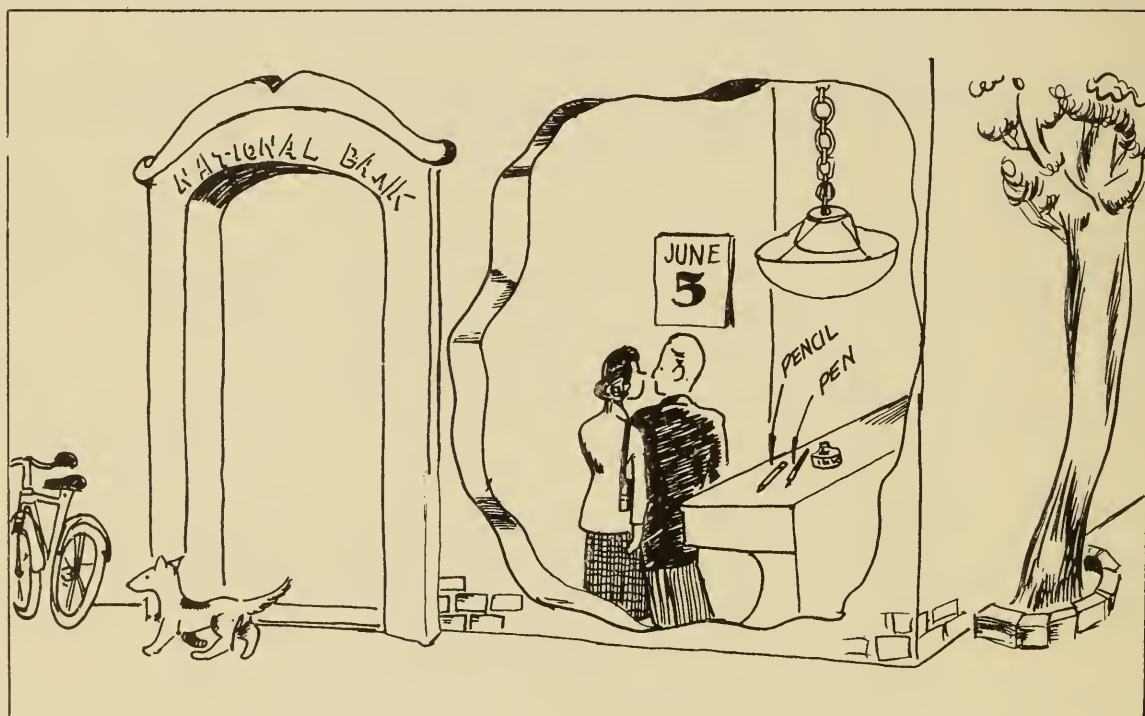
Continue the exercise.

b) IN, ON, AT.

Teacher: Where do you live? (On)
Student A: On State Street.
Teacher: When did you arrive? (At)
Student B: At six.
Teacher: Where do you live? (In)
Student C: In Michigan.

Continue the exercise, using IN, ON, AT with addresses and expressions of time.

1. Some words of Position.



The following sentences describe the position of persons and articles in the illustration:	
INSIDE (IN) Mary is inside the bank. John is in the bank. The pen and pencil are inside the bank.	IN FRONT OF John is in front of Mary. The bicycle is in front of the dog.
OUTSIDE The bicycle is outside the bank. The tree is outside the bank. The dog is outside the bank.	IN BACK OF Mary is in back of John. The dog is in back of the bicycle.
BESIDE The pen is beside the pencil. The pencil is beside the pen. The pen is beside the ink.	BELOW The table is below the lamp. John is below the calendar. The number "5" is below "June".
BETWEEN John is between Mary and the table. The pen is between the pencil and the ink. The dog is between the door and the bicycle.	ABOVE The lamp is above the table. "June" is above "5". The calendar is above John.
NEAR John is near the table. Mary is near the table.	AT John is at the table. The dog is at the door.
FAR FROM The dog is far from the table. The bicycle is far from the table.	ON The ink is on the table. The pen is on the table. The calendar is on the wall.
These words of position have many uses. The sentences describe some. The teacher will demonstrate these words by indicating the position of persons and articles in the classroom.	

Exercise :

Teacher: John is inside the BANK. Where is the dog?
Student A: The dog is outside the BANK.
Teacher: The pencil is on the TABLE. Where is the lamp?
Student B: The lamp is above the TABLE.
Teacher: Mary is in back of JOHN. Where is the table?
Student C: The table is in front of JOHN.

Continue the exercise. Teacher asks the following questions:

The table is in front of John. Where is Mary?
The lamp is above the calendar. Where is John?
The table is below the pencil and ink. Where is the pen?
The bicycle is beside the dog. Where is the dog?
The ink is on the table. Where is John?
John is at the table. Where is the pen?
John is near the table. Where is the dog?
The dog is far from Mary. Where is John?

2. Some words of Direction.

ADAMS

Laundry

RESTURANT

DRUGS

BOOKS

MAIN STREET

Mrs. Peters wanted the clothes. John went¹ TO the laundry to get² them. He went OUT OF his house and DOWN the stairs. He walked THROUGH the park. He went ACROSS Adams Street. He went INTO the Drug Store. He came³ OUT OF the drug Store and walked PAST the restaurant AS FAR AS the laundry. He did not go AS FAR AS the book store. He went INTO the laundry. He got the clothes. He came OUT OF the laundry. He went BACK PAST the restaurant. He went BACK PAST the drug store. He walked BACK ACROSS Adams Street and BACK PAST the park. He went UP the stairs and into the house. John went FROM the house TO the laundry. He went FROM the laundry TO the house.

These words of direction have many uses. The sentences describe some. The teacher will demonstrate these words by actions in the classroom.

1 - WENT is the past form of GO. See Grammar Lesson VIII.
2 - GET means OBTAIN here.
3 - CAME is the past form of COME. See Grammar Lesson VIII.

- 1 - WENT is the past form of GO. See Grammar Lesson VIII.
- 2 - GET means OBTAIN here.
- 3 - CAME is the past form of COME. See Grammar Lesson VIII.

Exercise 1:

Teacher: Did John go past the drug store?
Student A: No, he went through the drug store.
Teacher: Did John go into the restaurant?
Student B: No, he went past the restaurant.
Teacher: Did John go into the book store?
Student C: No, he went as far as the book store.

Continue the exercise.

Exercise 2:

Students describe John’s activities, using the illustration without reference to the text.

Exercise 3:

Students describe the teacher’s activities as he walks PAST the desk, ACROSS the room, AS FAR AS the door, etc.

3. Special Problem - AS FAR AS and UNTIL.

Observe the following sentences:

He went AS FAR AS Chicago. Mary walked AS FAR AS the hotel. John came AS FAR AS the laundry.	He studied UNTIL midnight. She walked UNTIL 6 p.m. He lived in Bogota UNTIL 1950.
Note that AS FAR AS is followed by a destination. UNTIL is followed by an expression denoting the termination of a period of time.	

Exercise:

Teacher: He traveled as far as Chicago. (Midnight)
Student A: He traveled until midnight.
Teacher: (New York)
Student B: He traveled as far as New York.
Teacher: (6 p.m.)
Student C: He traveled until 6 p.m.

Continue the exercise.

4. Conversation for Memorization.

John: Where are you going?
George: I’m going to the library. Where are you going?
John: as far as the drug store. Do you want to go into the restaurant near the bank?
George: Yes. I want some coffee.

LESSON VI VOCABULARY

1. Words like IN - Various Functions.
2. Conversation for Memorization.

Review

a) Turn to page 13. Teacher asks the following questions:

Where is the napkin?
Where is the fork?

Where is the knife?
Where is the spoon?

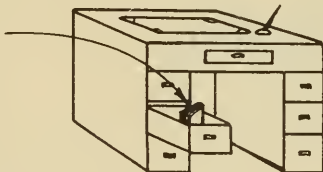
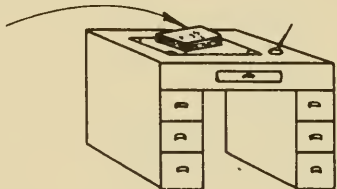
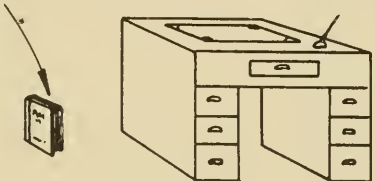
Continue the exercise.

b) Teacher asks the location of various classroom articles.

1. Words like IN - Various Functions.

Some of the little words in English are difficult because of the variety of areas in which they are used. These words appear regularly in a limited number of patterns. It is important to understand the patterns explained here. In order to make the contrasts clear, the key examples all contain IN. The conclusions have valid applications for other words similar to IN.

Pattern 1. The word IN is directly related to the "real" situation and does not primarily depend on other parts of the sentence.

The "real" situation.	The language description.
	THE BOOK IS <u>IN</u> THE DESK.
	The book is ON the desk.
	The book is BESIDE the desk.
Words which fit this pattern have been presented in Lesson V-Part 1.	

Pattern 2. The word IN sometimes correlates with certain meanings of following class 1 expressions.

With the meaning 'large unit of time' or 'large unit of an address' ¹	
Time JOHN ARRIVED <u>IN</u> JUNE. MARY ARRIVED <u>IN</u> 1954.	Address JOHN LIVES <u>IN</u> DETROIT. MARY LIVES <u>IN</u> MEXICO.
This contrasts with the meanings 'intermediate unit of time', 'intermediate unit of an address' and '"point" of time', and '"point" of an address'.	
Time John arrived <u>ON</u> Tuesday. Mary arrived <u>AT</u> 7.	Address He lives <u>ON</u> State Street. He lives <u>AT</u> 7198 State Street.
The selection of IN, ON, and AT depends on the meaning of the following word. See Vocabulary Lessons I-Part 2 and IV-Part 1.	

Pattern 3. The word IN sometimes correlates with particular preceding class 2 words when a class 1 follows.

Persist HE PERSISTED <u>IN</u> HIS PLAN.	Insist He insisted <u>ON</u> his plan.
Listen He listened <u>TO</u> his teacher.	Look I am looking <u>AT</u> John.
Think Mary thinks <u>ABOUT</u> her country.	Depend The program depends <u>ON</u> John.
The selection of ON, TO, ABOUT, AT, ON, and IN depends on the particular class 2 word which precedes.	

Exercise:

- Teacher: He insisted. (The plan)
- Student A: He insisted on the plan.
- Teacher: We listened. (The radio)
- Student B: We listened to the radio.
- Teacher: John persisted. (His opinion)
- Student C: John persisted in his opinion.
- Teacher: Mary thinks. (Her mother)
- Student D: Mary thinks about her mother.

Continue the exercise.

Pattern 4. The word IN sometimes follows a class 2 word with which it forms a meaning unit. These two-word verbs have certain grammatical characteristics which are described in Grammar Lesson XII.

¹ These terms have been presented in Lesson I-Part 2a. and Lesson IV-Part 1.

Break in THE EXECUTIVE <u>BROKE IN</u> THE NEW SECRETARY.	He TRAINED and TAUGHT the new secretary.
Call up He CALLED UP the hotel.	He TELEPHONED the hotel.
Run into Mary RAN INTO Jane on State Street.	She ENCOUNTERED Jane BY CHANCE on State Street.
Give out The teacher GIVES OUT the examinations.	The teacher DISTRIBUTES the examinations.
Get through We GOT THROUGH with ¹ class at 2.	We FINISHED class at 2.

Exercise:

Teacher: We telephoned the teacher.
 Student A: We called up the teacher.
 Teacher: John distributed the compositions.
 Student B: John gave out the compositions.
 Teacher: The professor finished his lectures yesterday.
 Student C: The professor got through with his lectures yesterday.
 Teacher: They trained and taught the new typist.
 Student D: They broke in the new typist.

Continue the exercise.

2. Conversation for Memorization.

John: I was not in class yesterday. Did the teacher give out
the new lesson?
 Mary: Yes. He gave out Lesson VII. I looked at it. It's not
difficult.
 John: Do you have it in your notebook? No. It is in my
room.

¹ Note that WITH follows GET THROUGH. This is similar to the function of IN with PER-
SIST, TO with LISTEN, etc.

LESSON VII VOCABULARY

1. The Human Body and its Actions.
2. Two-word Verbs with PUT.
3. Class 2 words whose past forms are irregular.
4. Conversation for Memorization.

Review

Use CALL UP, RUN INTO, GIVE OUT, GET THROUGH, BREAK IN with the words indicated.

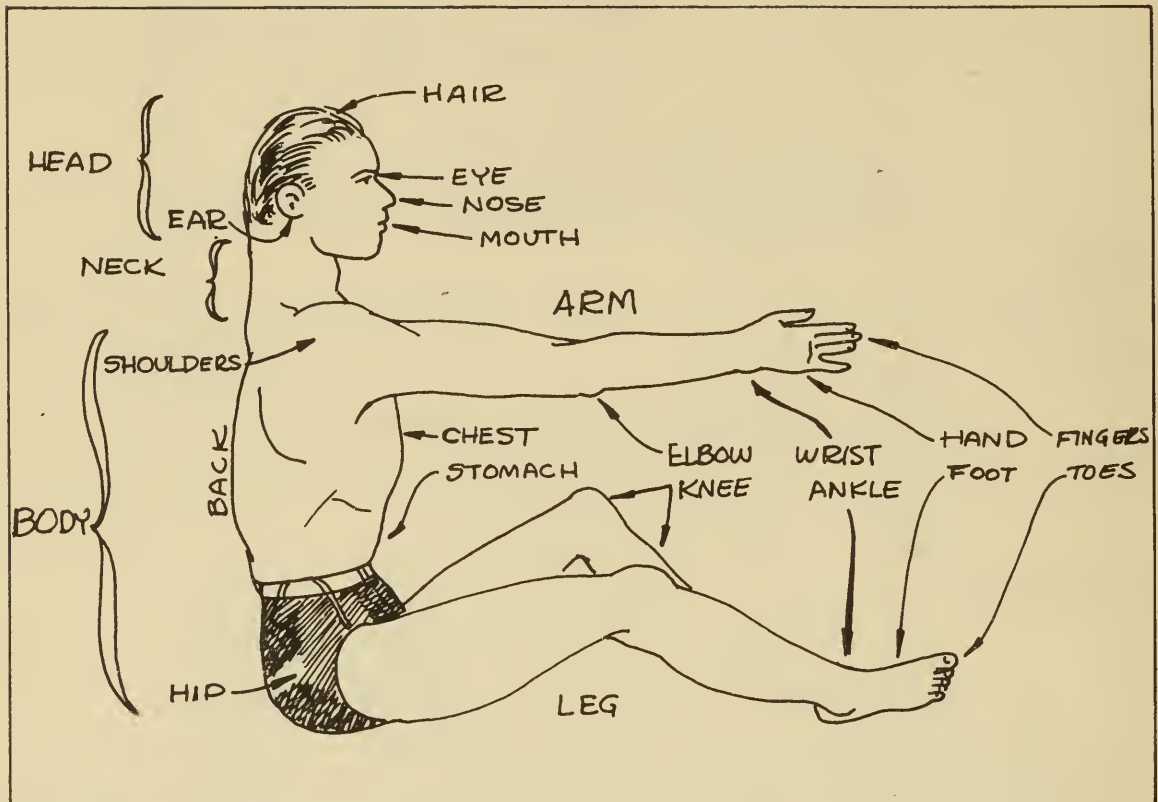
Teacher: (The class)
 Student A: We get through with the class at 9.
 Teacher: (Mary in the drug store)
 Student B: I run into Mary in the drug store.
 Teacher: (The telephone operator)
 Student C: I called up the telephone operator.

Continue the exercise with:

the examinations	Jane on State Street
a new pair of shoes	the secretary
my homework	my father in New York
a new car	

1. The Human Body and its Actions.

Parts of the human body: the HEAD, the BODY, and the ARMS and LEGS.	
Parts of the head: the FEATURES - the EYES, the NOSE, the MOUTH, and the EARS. It is covered with HAIR. The NECK connects the head with the body.	
She SEES with her eyes.	He NODDED his head and said yes.
John HEARS with his ears.	She SHAKES her head and says no.
We SMELL with our noses.	
Parts of the body: the SHOULDERS, the BACK, the CHEST, the STOMACK, and the HIPS.	
John SHRUGGED his shoulders.	
He SAT DOWN.	
We STOOD UP.	
Parts of the arms: the ELBOWS, the WRISTS, the HANDS, and the FINGERS.	
The teachers SHAKE hands with the new students.	
The audience CLAPPED their hands after the lecture.	
The man POINTED AT the new automobile with his index finger.	
Parts of the legs: the KNEES, the ANKLES, the FEET and the TOES.	
We frequently KNEEL in church.	
John WALKED to the class.	
Henry RUNS to the class.	



Exercise 1: Teacher touches his head, shoulders, elbows, etc.

Teacher: (touching his head) Is this my elbow?

Student A: No, it is your head. Is this my ankle?

Student B: No, it is your nose. Is this my mouth?

Student C: No, it is your wrist. Is this my knee?

Continue the exercise.

Exercise 2:

Teacher: Do I NOD with my elbow?

Student A: No, you NOD with your head. Do I SMILE with my hand?

Student B: No, you SMILE with your mouth. Do I WALK with my eyes?

Student C: No, you WALK with your feet. Do I SEE with my ears?

Continue the exercise.

Exercise 3:

Teacher: Do I nod with my eyes?

Student A: No, you see with your EYES. Do I walk with my EARS?

Student B: No, you hear with your EARS. Do I hear with my FEET?

Student C: No, you walk with your FEET. Do I smell with my ELBOW?

Continue the exercise.

2. Two-word verbs with PUT.

Observe the use of PUT in the following examples.	
He PUT the paper IN THE BOOK. John PUT the paper ON THE DESK. Henry PUT the paper UNDER THE PENCIL. Mary PUT the paper BETWEEN THE BOOK AND THE PENCIL.	
PUT, with the meaning "place" or "locate" regularly occurs with an expression of direction following.	
Observe the use of PUT in the following examples.	
She PUT UP her hand Henry PUT DOWN the book.	She PUT her hand UP. Henry PUT the book DOWN.
PUT, with the meaning "place" or "locate" also occurs with some words of direction in structures of Pattern 4 in Lesson VI. ("new meaning unit")	

Exercise:
Teacher uses classroom articles such as chalk, pencils, erasers, placing them in various positions to elicit responses with PUT.

- (Teacher places a pencil in the desk.)
Student A: You put the pencil in the desk.
(Teacher places an eraser in the desk.)
Student B: You put the eraser in the desk.)
(Teacher places a pencil between an eraser and a piece of chalk.)
Student C: You put the pencil between the eraser and the chalk.
(Teacher raises his hand.)
Student D: You put your hand up.

Continue the exercise.

3. Class 2 words whose past forms are irregular.

These words are useful for your grammar class.

(a)

Present:	EAT	BECOME	GIVE
Past:	ATE	BECAME	GAVE
John was hungry at 11. He ATE an early breakfast and BECAME hungry for that reason. Mary GAVE him some chocolate. He wasn't hungry afterwards.			

(b)

Present:	MEET	READ [rid]
Past:	MET	READ [rɛd]
John said, "I was in the library at 5. Henry was there. I MET Henry in the library. I READ [rɛd] a novel and he READ [rɛd] a grammar book.		

1 - You will sometimes hear the Class 1 object omitted:

- He PUT the paper IN.
John PUT the paper ON.
- Henry PUT the paper UNDER.
Mary PUT the paper BETWEEN.

(c)

Present:	SIT	BEGIN
Past:	SAT	BEGAN

Henry said, "I came to the library at 4. I **BEGAN** to read a grammar book. (I commenced to read a grammar book.) A chair was beside me. John **SAT** in it. He **BEGAN** to read a novel.

(d)

Present:	GET	FORGET
Past:	GOT	FORGOT

Mary wanted a book and a pencil. She **GOT** a book at the bookstore. (She obtained it.) She didn't get a pencil. There were pencils in the bookstore. She **FORGOT** the pencil.

(e)

Present:	SEE	TEAR	WEAR
Past:	SAW	TORE	WORE

I **SAW** a coat in a store. I got it for \$ 20. I **WORE** it for two hours. I sat in an old chair and **TORE** the coat.

(f)

Present:	CHOOSE	WRITE
Past:	CHOSE	WROTE

Mary read a novel in the library. She **CHOSE** Don Quixote. (She selected it.) Cervantes was the author. He **WROTE** it.

(g)

Present:	TAKE	KNOW
Past:	TOOK	KNEW

John went to the library. He got a book. He **TOOK** the book out of the library. He reads Spanish. He understands Spanish. He speaks Spanish. He **KNOWS** Spanish well. He was in Brazil ten years ago. He **KNEW** Portuguese. He forgot it after his trip.

(h)

Present:	SEND	SPEND	COST
Past:	SENT	SPENT	COST

Mary got two three-cent stamps yesterday. They **COST** six cents. She **SPENT** six cents. She **SENT** a letter by air-mail.

(i)

Present:	PUT
Past:	PUT

Mary: Where is my coat?

Jane: Did you **PUT** it in your room?

Mary: I **PUT** it in my room before lunch.

(j)

Present:	LEAVE	SLEEP	FEEL
Past:	LEFT	SLEPT	FELT

Mary: How are you?

Jane: I'm fine now.

Mary: Were you sick?

Jane: Yes, I LEFT the hospital yesterday. I FEEL well now, but I FELT badly last week.

Mary: Did you SLEEP well last night?

Jane: I SLEPT for ten hours.

(k)

Present:	HEAR
Past:	HEARD

Mary: Did you HEAR the radio program last night?

Jane: Yes, I HEARD it.

(l)

Present:	THINK	BRING	BUY
Past:	THOUGHT	BROUGHT	BOUGHT

Jane: Did you BRING your book to class?

Mary: Yes, I THINK so. BOUGHT it yesterday. Did I forget it? No, I didn't. It's here. I BROUGHT it.

(m)

Present:	SELL
Past:	SOLD

Mary: I bought a book from John. He SOLD it to me.

(n)

Present:	STAND
Past:	STOOD

Mary sat on the chair. John STOOD beside it.

4. Conversation for Memorization¹

John: I bought a new book yesterday.

Henry: Where did you get it?

John: I got it from Mr. Franklin. He sold it to me. I sent it to Mary.

Henry: Where is Mary now?

John: She is in Chicago. She left Ann Arbor last week.

Henry: Did she give you an address?

John: Yes.

¹ Note to the teacher: Students may also memorize the conversations in (i), (j), (k), and (l) of Part 3 above.





LESSON VIII VOCABULARY

1. Words which Describe.
2. Special Problem - GET.
3. Some two-word verbs with GET.
4. Conversation for Memorization.

Review


Students repeat the conversation in Lesson VII from memory.

1. Words which describe.

Observe the following descriptions.			
The chair is BIG.	a) 	The chair is BIG.	c) 
	b) 		d) 
The chair is SMALL.		The chair is SMALL.	
Note that illustrations b) and c) have similar dimensions although SMALL is used to describe b), and BIG is used to describe c). Note also the following:			
<u>July</u> 65° Fahrenheit. ¹ a) It is COOL today.		<u>Arctic</u> 65° Fahrenheit. c) It is WARM.	
<u>February</u> 65° Fahrenheit. ¹ b) It is WARM today.		<u>Tropics</u> 65° Fahrenheit. d) It is COOL.	
Note that the same temperature is described as COOL in a) and d) and WARM in b) and c). The words presented here describe contrastive relative points on a scale.			



Other words of this class are:

a) TALL - SHORT

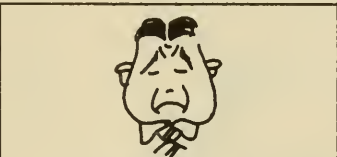

John is TALL.		Additional examples: John is a tall man. Mary is a short woman. The tree is tall. It is a tall building.
Mary is SHORT		

¹The temperature 65° describes the situation in the North Central states in the months indicated.

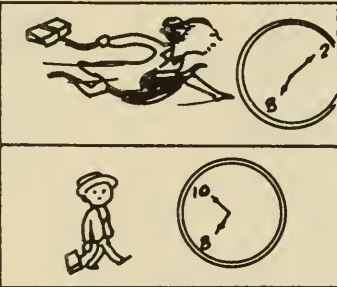
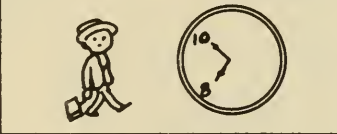
b) HEAVY - LIGHT

It is HEAVY.		Additional examples. John is heavy. Henry is light. An elephant is very heavy. An insect is very light.
It is LIGHT.		

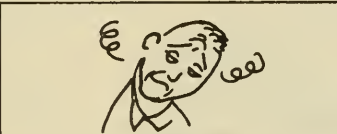

c) SAD - HAPPY

John is SAD.		Additional examples. Brahms composed sad music. Strauss composed happy music. Mary studies her lesson. She is happy. John didn't study his lesson. He is unhappy.
Mary is HAPPY.		

d) EARLY - LATE

Mary is LATE.		Additional examples. A dinner at 5 is early. A dinner at 9 is late. Mr. Gomez arrived before the course. He was early. Miss Gonzalez arrived during the course. She was late.
CLASS IS AT 8.		
John is EARLY.		

e) SICK - WELL

John is SICK.		Additional examples. He has malaria. He is sick. She doesn't have malaria. She is well. James was sick two weeks ago. He is well now.
James is WELL.		



f) GOOD - BAD

John is a BAD man.		Additional examples: Thomas is a good student He studies every day. Henry is a bad student. He doesn't study.
James is a GOOD man.		


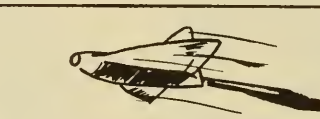
g) NARROW - WIDE

The street is NARROW .		Additional examples: Chile is a narrow country. Brazil is a wide country. Some rivers are narrow. The Amazon is wide.
The street is WIDE .		



h) STRONG - WEAK

John is STRONG .		Additional examples: Adults are usually strong. Children are usually weak. James was sick two weeks ago. He was weak but he is strong now.
James is WEAK .		




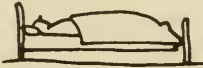
i) SLOW - FAST

A snail is SLOW .		Additional examples: A bicycle is slow. A car is fast. His progress was slow. Her progress was fast.
An airplane is FAST .		

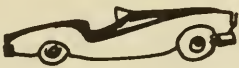



j) HIGH - LOW

The airplane is HIGH .		Additional examples: This bird is high. That bird is low. The letter on the black-board is high. The number on the black-board is low.
The airplane is LOW .		

Some words are part of more than one scale.
k) LOUD-SOFT, SOFT-HARD, HARD-EASY

		The music is LOUD.
The music is SOFT.		
The bed is SOFT.		
		The bed is HARD.
	$X^2 + \frac{2^3}{\beta} + \frac{37}{7} - \pi = ?$	The problem is HARD.
The problem is EASY.	$2 + 2 = ?$	

l) NEW-OLD, OLD-YOUNG

		The car is NEW.
The car is OLD.		
The man is OLD.		
		The boy is YOUNG.

Exercise:

Teacher: What is the difference between Brazil and Salvador?
Student A: Brazil is big. Salvador is small.
Teacher: What is the difference between a man and a boy?
Student B: A man is old. A boy is young.
Teacher: What is the difference between summer and winter?
Student C: Summer is hot. Winter is cold.

Teacher asks the following questions:

What is the difference between metal and wood?
What is the difference between breakfast at 6 and breakfast at 10?
What is the difference between a criminal and a saint?
What is the difference between Chile and Brazil?
What is the difference between an elephant and a mouse?
What is the difference between arithmetic and calculus?

Continue the exercise.

2. Special Problem - GET (GOT)

Observe the different meanings of GET in the following frames:

Meaning (a)		
He is going to get They got Did you get He got	a new car. letters your book? a haircut	this morning. yesterday.
GET in these examples has the meaning "obtain", "receive". Notice that the words CAR, LETTERS, BOOK, HAIRCUT are grammatically similar. GET followed by words of this class usually means "obtain" "receive."		

Meaning (b)		
John got Get They got He got	excited ready. tired finished	about the baseball game. It's time to go. after some strenuous exercise. at 10 p.m.
GET in these examples has the meaning "become", "be". Notice that the words EXCITED, READY, TIRED, FINISHED are grammatically similar. GET followed by words of this class usually means "become", "be".		

Meaning (c)					
He got They are going to get Mary got I got		to Chicago to New York here there	last week. next week. early. before him.		
GET in these examples has the meaning "arrive", "come to a certain point". Notice that the phrases TO CHICAGO, TO NEW YORK, and the words HERE, THERE are expressions of place. Observe the following related expressions:					
He got He got	in the taxi. in.	"enter"	He got He got	on the bus. on.	
She got She got	out of the taxi. out.	"leave"	She got She got	off the bus. oif.	
GET IN and GET OUT (OF) are used with the specialized meaning "enter" and "leave" a private or semi-private vehicle with few passengers.					
GET ON and GET OFF are used with the specialized meaning "enter" and "leave" a large, usually public vehicle with many passengers.					

Meaning (d)		
He's got Has he got John's got	a pencil. two books? a class	now.
HAVE (HAS) GOT in these examples has the meaning of "have", "possess". Note that the words PENCIL, BOOK, CLASS are grammatically similar. HAVE GOT followed by words of this class usually means "have", "possess".		

Meaning (e)		
He's got to Have you got to We've got to	study. attend speak	the lecture. English.
HAVE (HAS) GOT TO in these examples has the meaning "must" "have to". Note that the words STUDY, ATTEND, SPEAK are grammatically similar. HAVE GOT TO followed by words of this class usually means "must", "have to", "be necessary".		

Summary of the uses of GET.

a.	John		got	a book.				"obtain", "receive"
b.	They		got		ready.			"become", "be"
c.	We		got			to Chicago.		"arrive", "come to a certain point".
d.	He	'S	got	a pencil.				"possess", "have"
e.	He	'S	got to				study.	"must", "have to"

Exercise:

Teacher: Did you receive the letter?
Student A: Yes, I got the letter.
Teacher: Did John become excited?
Student B: Yes, he got excited.
Teacher: Did John obtain the money?
Student C: Yes, he got the money.

Teacher asks the following questions:

Did they arrive there early?
Do you have a pencil?
Must you go to school?
Is he going to arrive in Chicago tomorrow?
Did he enter the taxi?
Are you going to leave the train in Detroit?

Continue the exercise.

3. Some two-word verbs with GET.

Observe the following sentences:			
He got	up	at 10 this morning.	He left his bed.
John got	over	his cold.	He recuperated from his sickness.
Mary got	through	with her lesson.	She finished her lesson.
The prisoner got	away.		He escaped.
How are you getting	along?		How are you progressing?
The word GET, in conjunction with following words like UP, OVER, THROUGH, AWAY has a tendency toward a specialized meaning for the combination.			

Exercise:

Use GET UP, GET OVER, GET THROUGH and GET AWAY with the words indicated.

Teacher: (At 6.)
Student A: I got up at 6.
Teacher: (Influenza.)
Student B: He got over influenza.
Teacher: (The criminal.)
Student C: The criminal got away.

Continue the exercise with the following words and phrases:

the class	the lesson	the course
early	pneumonia	the prisoner

4. Conversation for Memorization.

James: Hello, Frank. How are you getting along?
Frank: I'm getting along well, thank you. I'm getting ac-
customed to life in the United States.
James: When did you get to the United States?
Frank: I got here three weeks ago.
James: Well, I've got to go now. I'm going to get a haircut.
I'll see you later.

LESSON IX
VOCABULARY

1. Some meanings of the words CAN, MAY, MUST, MIGHT, SHOULD.
2. Additional meanings of CAN, COULD, MUST, SHOULD. The words SHALL, WOULD RATHER, HAD BETTER.
3. Conversation for Memorization.

Review

Exercise:

Teacher: Did he get a letter?
Student A: Yes he received a letter.
Teacher: Did he get excited?
Student B: Yes he became excited.
Teacher: Has he got a pencil?
Student C: Yes he has a pencil.

Continue the exercise. Teacher asks the following questions:

Did he get in the car?
Did we get to Detroit early?
Did she get off the plane?

1. Some meanings of the words CAN, MAY, MUST, MIGHT, SHOULD.¹

The meanings of the following words are complex and various. The sentences below present some of the more common situations in which they are used.

a) CAN

Observe the following examples:
Pedro is from Mexico. He CAN speak Spanish. He is not from China. He CAN'T speak Chinese.
John COULDN'T play the violin ten years ago. He began lessons in 1945. He CAN play the violin now.
Mary COULDN'T go to Detroit yesterday. She had an examination. She doesn't have an examination today. She CAN go to Detroit this afternoon.
CAN and the past form COULD describe an ability.

Exercise:

Teacher: Pedro can speak Spanish. (They)
Student A: They can speak Spanish.
Teacher: John can play the guitar. (Mary)
Student B: Mary can play the guitar.
Teacher: I couldn't go yesterday. (Last week)
Student C: I couldn't go last week.

¹The grammatical aspect of these words is presented in Grammar Lesson XI.

Continue the exercise with the following sentences:

Frank can play tennis. (Baseball)
John can read French. (Spanish)
John could read French. (Understand)
George can't speak Italian. (Couldn't)

b) MAY

Observe the following:

John: MAY I borrow your pencil.
Mary: Surely.
John: MAY I open the window?
Henry: Surely.
John: MAY I have the salt?
Mary: Surely.
Mary: MAY I smoke here?
Jane: No, I'm sorry.

MAY is frequently used in questions of permission.

Exercise:

Teacher: May I help you?
Student A: Yes. May I speak Spanish?
Student B: No. May we speak English?
Student C: Yes. May he go with you?

Continue the exercise.

c) MUST

Observe the following sentences:

A doctor MUST study medicine for many years. (It is necessary.)
You MUST practice English. (It is necessary to practice English.)
You MUST not speak Spanish in class. (It is prohibited to speak Spanish.)

MUST is used in situations of obligation and necessity. When NOT follows MUST the expression is used in situations of prohibition.

Exercise:

Teacher: I want to learn English. (Speak)
Student A: I must speak it.
Teacher: He wants to speak English. (Practice)
Student B: He must practice it.
Teacher: They want to understand Chinese. (Listen to)
Student C: They must listen to it.

Continue the exercise. Teacher uses the following sentences:

They can't pronounce English correctly. (Imitate)
He likes to speak Spanish. (Stop)
He wants to go to the football game. (Buy a ticket)
Mary is going to visit Brazil. (Get a visa)

d) MIGHT

Observe the following:
John: What are you going to do tonight?
James: I don't know. I MIGHT go to the movies, I MIGHT go to the concert, or I MIGHT go to the program.
Mary: Where are you going to study this afternoon?
Jane: I don't know. I MIGHT study at the library.
MIGHT is used in situations where alternative possibilities exist.

Exercise:

Teacher: Where are you going after the English course?
Student A: I might go to Ohio or I might go to California.
Teacher: When are you going to the program?
Student B: I might go at 7:15 or I might go at 7:30.
Teacher: What are you going to study tomorrow?
Student C: I might study history or English.

Teacher asks the following questions:

What are you going to read tonight?
Where is John?
Who is that man?
When is the program?

e) SHOULD

Observe the following:
You have an examination tomorrow. You SHOULD study tonight.
The program is a good opportunity to speak English. You SHOULD go.
SHOULD is used in situations of propriety, prudence, or obligation.

Exercise:

Teacher: You have an examination tomorrow.
Student A: I should study tonight.
Teacher: I have a bad cold.
Student B: You should go to the doctor.
Teacher: Henry is going to go to France next year.
Student C: He should study French.

Continue the exercise with the following sentences:

She is tired.
His watch is broken.
He doesn't have any money.
He wants a car.
They are speaking Spanish.
He wants to be a doctor.
We do not like milk.

2. Additional meanings of CAN, COULD, MUST, SHOULD. The words SHALL, WOULD RATHER, HAD BETTER. These meanings are for recognition.

Observe the following:

a)	CAN
	John asked his mother, "May I go?" His mother said, "Yes you CAN go." John was permitted to go.
	CAN is sometimes used in situations of permission.
b)	COULD
	John needs \$ 10. He is going to ask Henry for the money. He is very polite. He says, "COULD you lend me \$ 10 tomorrow?"
	COULD is sometimes used in very polite requests.
c)	MUST
	John was born in 1930. It is 1954 now. John MUST be 24. I suppose that he is 24.
	MUST is sometimes used in situations of deduction.
d)	SHOULD
	John usually comes at 9. It is 8:50 now. He SHOULD be here soon. He is probably going to be here soon.
	SHOULD is sometimes used in situations of probability.
e)	SHALL
	Mary is cold. It might be a good idea to close the window. John asks, "SHALL I close the window?" Mary says, "Yes, please."
	SHALL is sometimes used in questions which ask for accord.
f)	WOULD RATHER
	John doesn't want to sing. He'D RATHER dance. He prefers to dance.
	WOULD RATHER is used to describe a preference.
g)	HAD BETTER
	Henry is very tired. He'D BETTER go to bed. It is desirable.
	HAD BETTER is used in situations involving desirability.

3. Conversation for Memorization.

John: Where are you going after dinner?
 Henry: I might go to the movies. Where are you going?
 John: I'm going to the library. I must study.
 Henry: I can go to the movies tomorrow. May I go to the library with you?
 John: Certainly.

LESSON X
VOCABULARY

REVIEW

Because classes differ in their review requirements, it is suggested that the teacher repeat the exercises in the first nine lessons as necessary, in addition to those that follow here.

1. Answer the following questions with IN, ON, AT. (Lessons I and IV)

Teacher: Where is the post office?
Student A: On Main Street.
Teacher: Where do you live?
Student B: In Venezuela.
Teacher: When are you going to leave?
Student C: In June.

Continue the exercise with the following:

When is the concert?	Where does she live?
Where is the bank?	Where is the restaurant?
When is Frank going to come?	When is your English class?
When was the examination?	When did you arrive?
Where is your house?	Where is the bus station?
When do you want to go to the concert?	When is the bus going to arrive?

2. Use GET UP, GET OVER, GET THROUGH, GET AWAY, and GET ALONG in the following.

Teacher: Did you recuperate from your cold?
Student A: Yes, I got over it.
Teacher: Did you finish early?
Student B: Yes, I got through at 7.
Teacher: Did the prisoner escape?
Student C: Yes, he got away.

Continue the exercise with the following:

Are you progressing in your studies?	Did the criminal escape?
Is John well after his sickness?	Are you going to terminate your
Did you finish the lesson?	studies in June?
When did you get up?	

3. General Review.

- a) Describe your activities of today. Use the expressions THIS MORNING, THIS NOON, THIS AFTERNOON, THIS EVENING. (Lesson III)
- b) Describe your activities of this month. Use the expressions THIS WEEK, NEXT WEEK, LAST WEEK. (Lesson III)
- c) Describe your activities during a usual day. Use the expressions IN THE MORNING, EVERY MORNING, etc. (Lesson III)
- d) Describe your activities of this afternoon. Use the expressions at 1 O'CLOCK, IN THE AFTERNOON, etc. (Lesson III)

- e) Describe your activities of the present year, the past year and the coming year. Use the expressions NEXT, LAST, THIS. (Lessons III)
- f) Describe the position of various articles in your room. Use the words IN, ON, BESIDE, NEAR, etc. (Lesson V)
- g) Describe a trip to the bank. Use the words INTO, OUT OF, THROUGH, etc. (Lesson V)
- h) Describe a friend. Use words like TALL, SHORT, YOUNG, OLD, etc. (Lesson VIII)
- i) Give the number of people and articles in the classroom. (Lesson IV)
- j) Describe a recent meal. (Lesson II)

LESSON XI
VOCABULARY

1. Tomas Arrives in Riverside City
2. Special Problems: CALL, ASK, DRIVE, NEED, WAIT, EXPECT
3. Conversation for Memorization

1. Tomas Arrives in Riverside City

Jack Cooper lives in a small city called Riverside City. It is situated in a state in the north-central region of the United States. There is a state university in Riverside City. Many students from other countries attend the university.

Tomas Gomez is a student from Mexico. He arrived in Riverside City on August 15. When he arrived he didn't know anybody. He didn't know English very well. He got a taxi and asked the driver a question. He asked, "Can you take me to a hotel?"

The driver took Tomas to a hotel. When the driver got out of the taxi he saw Jack Cooper. The driver and Jack Cooper are friends. The driver said, Hello, Jack. How are you?"

Jack said, "Fine, thanks. How are you, Mr. Franklin?"

Mr. Franklin answered, "Fine. Can you help this young man? He is from another country and needs help."

Jack said, "How do you do? My name is Jack Cooper. I am a student at the university. May I help you?"

Tomas answered, "My name is Tomas Gomez. I am from Mexico City. I don't speak English very well. I would like a good hotel. Is this a good hotel?"

Jack said, "Yes, but it is very expensive. We have an extra room in our house. I'll call up my mother and ask about it."

Jack went into the hotel and telephoned his mother. Tomas waited outside. Mrs. Cooper was happy to invite Tomas to stay in the extra room.

Jack's friend, Mr. Franklin, took Tomas and Jack to Jack's home. Mrs. Cooper was expecting them. Jack introduced Tomas to his mother.

2. Special Problems

- (1) Jack Cooper lives in a small city CALLED Riverside City.

Observe the following uses of CALL:

The principal executive in the United States is CALLED the president.
We CALL our national game baseball.
He lives in an apartment house CALLED the Arbor Apartments.

Note that CALL is not usually used in the following questions:

Jack: What is your name? Tomas: What is his name?
Tomas: My name is Tomas Gomez. Jack: His name is Mr. Franklin.

Tomas: What is her name?
Jack: Her name is Louise.

Exercise:

Teacher: Mr. Franklin
Student A: What is his name?
Teacher: Baseball
Student B: What is your national game called?
Teacher: Louise Cooper.
Student C: What is her name?

Continue the exercise, Teacher: John, the president, a policeman.
Havana, Mrs. Cooper, Tomas Gomez, Riverside City High School.

- (7) He got a taxi and ASKED the driver a question.

Observe the following:

Mr. Cooper ASKED Jack a question.
Louise ASKED a question.
Tomas ASKED Louise, "Where is the hotel?"
Tomas ASKED Jack for a map.
Jack ASKED for permission to go to the movies.
He ASKED his mother for permission.

Exercise:

Teacher: a map
Student A: Jack asked for a map.
Teacher: "Where are you going?"
Student B: Louise asked, "Where are you going?"
Teacher: Jack, a map
Student C: She asked Jack for a map.

Continue the exercise:

Teacher: Jack, a question; your address; "Who is that?";
Louise, "Where are you going?"; What is your
name?"; a pen; Louise, a pencil.

- (7) He got a taxi and asked the DRIVER a question.

Observe the following:

Mr. Franklin drives a taxi. He is a taxi DRIVER.
He is a truck DRIVER.
He is a bus DRIVER.
Jack is riding a bicycle.
He pilots an airplane. He is a pilot.

Exercise:

Teacher: a bicycle
Student A: He rides a bicycle.
Teacher: a truck
Student B: He drives a truck.
Teacher: a Constellation
Student C: He pilots a Constellation.

Continue the exercise:

Teacher: a motorcycle, a car, a helicopter, a bus, a Ford,
a horse, an elephant.

(13) He is from another country and NEEDS help.

Observe the following examples:

I don't have a pencil. I NEED a pencil.
Tomas NEEDED a room in Riverside City.
Louise was sick. She NEEDED some medicine.
John NEEDS new shoes. His old shoes are worn out.
Henry NEEDS a diploma. He has to take more courses.

Exercise:

Teacher: I have a headache.
Student A: You need an aspirin.
Teacher: Louise has a toothache.
Student B: She needs some medicine.
Teacher: Jack was late again.
Student C: He needs a watch.

Continue the exercise:

Teacher: Tomas can't see well. The book costs three dollars,
but I have only one dollar. Louise's hands are cold.
I can't open this door. Tomas can't go to the concert.
I don't know the meaning of that word. My head is cold.

(22) Tomas WAITED outside.

(25) Mrs. Cooper was EXPECTING them.

Observe the following examples:

Tomas WAITED for Jack outside the hotel.
After he arrived, Tomas WAITED for a taxi.
Mr. Franklin WAITED for Jack.

Wait is used to express anticipation of an event.

Mr. Cooper was EXPECTING Jack and Tomas
Louise is EXPECTING a letter from her aunt.
Tomas EXPECTS a letter from Mexico.

Expect is used to express confidence exists as to the occurrence of an event.

Mrs. Cooper HOPES to go to the movies tonight.
Jack HOPES that Tomas will be happy in his house.
Mr. Cooper HOPES that the lecture will be interesting.

Hope is used to express a desire for an event to occur.

3. Conversation for Memorization

Tomas: Are you waiting for the train?
Louise: Yes, I hope it comes soon.
Tomas: Trains are frequently late. I expect that it will be late.
Louise: I hope you are wrong.

LESSON XII
VOCABULARY

1. Review
2. Evening and Morning Activities
3. Special Problems: WAKE UP, GET UP, PUT ON, TAKE OFF;
TAKE A SHOWER; BRUSH THE TEETH, COMB THE HAIR,
SHAVE; GET DRESSED; ALMOST
4. Conversation for Memorization

1. Review

- a) Students summarize the events that occurred in the selection Tomas Arrives in Riverside City.
- b) Students give examples of CALL, ASK, DRIVE, NEED, WAIT, EXPECT, HOPE.

2. Evening and Morning Activities

Tomas was very tired after his long trip, so he went to bed early. Jack said, "Good night, Tomas. Shall I wake you up tomorrow morning?"

Tomas said, "Please do. I don't have my alarm clock. My alarm clock is in the trunk and it is going to be here next week. When do you get up?"

"We usually get up at 6:30, and we have breakfast at 7:15. Shall I wake you up at 6:30?"

5

Tomas said, "Yes, please. Good night, Jack."

Jack answered, "Good night."

Next morning the alarm clock woke Jack at 6:15, and he woke Tomas up at 6:20. Tomas went into the bathroom, took a shower, brushed his teeth, combed his hair, and shaved. He went back to his room and took off his pajamas and put on his clothes. He got dressed rapidly. When he finished, he went to the kitchen. Mrs. Cooper was preparing breakfast. She said, "Good morning, Tomas. Did you sleep well?"

10

Tomas said, "Very well, thank you."

15

Mrs. Cooper said, "Sit down, Tomas. Jack is coming in a minute. Breakfast is almost ready."

"Thank you, Mrs. Cooper."

3. Special Problems

- (2) Shall I WAKE you UP tomorrow morning?
and (4) When do you GET UP?
(11) He went back to his room and TOOK OFF his pajamas and
PUT ON his clothes.
- (10) Tomas went into the bathroom, TOOK a SHOWER, BRUSHED his TEETH,
COMBED his HAIR, and SHAVED.

- (12) He GOT DRESSED rapidly.
- (16) Breakfast is ALMOST ready.

Review Lesson VI, Pattern 4. Observe the following:

Jack woke up at 6:15.	The alarm clock woke Jack up.	It woke up Jack.	It woke him up.	WAKE UP
Jack got up at 6:20.	He got Tomas up.		He got him up.	GET UP
	He put his clothes on.	He put on his clothes.	He put them on.	PUT ON
	He took his pajamas off.	He took off his pajamas.	He took them off.	TAKE OFF
Tomas sat down.				SIT DOWN

The blank spaces indicate that the two-word verb does not regularly appear in that particular structure. For example, He put on does not appear.

- (2) Shall I WAKE you UP tomorrow morning?

Exercise: WAKE UP

Teacher: Did you wake up Tomas?
Student A: Yes, I woke him up.
Teacher: Do you wake up Louise?
Student B: Yes, I wake her up.
Teacher: Did you wake up Jack and Tomas?
Student C: Yes, I woke them up.

Continue the exercise, Teacher using the following: Did you wake up early? Are you going to wake Jack up? Do you wake Louise up? Are you waking Jack up? Who woke you up? Are you going to wake Jack and Tomas up? Who woke up John?

Exercise: GET UP

Teacher: When did you get up?
Student A: I got up at 7.
Teacher: Who got you up?
Student B: My brother got me up.
Teacher: Who got up?
Student C: I got up.

Continue the exercise, Teacher using the following: When did Jack get up? Who got Jack up? Who got up? When did Louise get up? Who got Louise up? Who got up? When did they get up?

Exercise: TAKE OFF, PUT ON

Teacher: clothes...pajamas
Student A: He took off h s clothes and put on his pajamas.

Teacher: pajamas...clothes

Student B: He took off his pajamas and put on his clothes.

Teacher: sweater...coat

Student C: He took off his sweater and put on his coat.

Continue the exercise, Teacher using the following: glove...wrist watch, sweater...blouse, shoes...slippers, slippers...shoes, tie...sweater, coat...raincoat, skirt...dress.

Repeat the exercise, students using future forms of Class 2 words.

- (10) Tomas went into the bathroom, took a shower, brushed his teeth, combed his hair, and shaved.

Observe the following:

They brushed their teeth.

Tomas took a shower.

He took a bath.

He brushed his teeth.

He brushed his hair.

Jack combed his hair.

Jack shaved.

Mary brushed her hair.

They used toothbrushes.

He used a toothbrush.

He used a hairbrush.

Jack used a comb.

Jack used a razor.

She used a hairbrush.

Note: a) Shave is not followed by a Class 1 substitute.

b) hair, teeth, are preceded by words like her, their, his.

Exercise:

Teacher: with a comb.

Student A: He combed his hair with a comb.

Teacher: with a toothbrush.

Student B: She brushed her teeth with a toothbrush.

Teacher: with a hairbrush.

Student C: I brush my hair with a hairbrush.

Continue the exercise, Teacher using the following: with a razor, with a comb, with a hairbrush, with a toothbrush, etc.

- (12) He GOT DRESSED rapidly.

Review Lesson VIII, page 46, Meaning (b). Observe the following:

Jack put on his clothes.

Tomas washed his face.

Louise went to bed at 7:30.

Jack combed his hair

before dinner.

Tomas didn't shave until
noon.

He got dressed.

He got washed.

She got tired early.

He got combed before dinner.

Tomas didn't get shaved until noon.

Exercise:

Teacher: dressed

Student A: He got dressed.

Teacher: shaved
Student B: He got shaved.
Teacher: combed
Student C: I got combed.

Continue the exercise, Teacher using the following: washed, tired, combed, dressed, shaved, etc.

(16) Breakfast is ALMOST ready.

Observe the following examples:

Ten of the class are here. One is not. Almost all of the class is here.
It is December 23. It is almost Christmas.
He has to write one more letter. He is almost finished.
It is ten minutes to twelve. It is almost midnight.
She is twenty-nine years old. She is almost thirty.

Almost signifies a small quantity less than the following word in these examples.

Exercise:

Teacher: The banquet begins at 6:00. It is 5:45 now.
Student A: It is almost 6:00 now.
Teacher: Jack got 99% on his examination.
Student B: He got almost 100%.
Teacher: Louise has 24¢.
Student C: She has almost a quarter.

Continue the exercise, Teacher using the following: It is 4:55. The class finishes in five minutes. There were 49,500 people at the football game. He spent eleven months in Spain. John was very, very sick. This book has 999 pages. Cleveland has 900,000 inhabitants.

4. Conversation for Memorization

Jack: Do you want me to wake you up in the morning?
Tomas: Yes, please. I'd like to get up early. I have to do many things.
Jack: I'll wake you up at 7:00. Is that too early?
Tomas: No, that's fine. I usually get up early.

LESSON XIII

VOCABULARY

1. Tomas Buys Some Clothes
2. Special Problems: PAIR, MEN'S WEAR, CLERK, MERCHANDISE, SIZE, TRY ON, MISS
3. Conversation for Memorization

1. Tomas Buys Some Clothes

During breakfast Tomas asked about a clothing store. He said, "Where can I buy some clothes? I didn't bring many clothes. I want to buy a new suit, several pairs of socks, and some underwear. I also need a new pair of shoes."

Mrs. Cooper recommended the Green Department Store. "They have a good men's wear department and the clerks are courteous and helpful. Green's is not too expensive, and they have good merchandise. Jack can go with you and advise you."

5

Jack and Tomas arrived at the department store at 9:30. They went directly to the men's wear department. The clerk asked, "May I help you."

10

Tomas said, "Yes, please. I'd like to look at some suits first, and then some underwear, socks, and shoes."

The clerk answered, "Yes, sir. What is your size?"

Tomas explained, "I don't know. We sometimes use different numbers for sizes in Mexico. You'd better measure me."

15

The clerk measured Tomas and gave him several size 40 suits. He said, "Try these on for size."

Tomas tried one on and said, "The size is good, but I don't like the color. Do you have a dark gray suit?"

20

The clerk found a size 40 dark gray suit. Tomas tried the coat on and asked Jack, "Do you like this, Jack?"

Jack said, "Yes, it is a good color for you."

Tomas tried on the pants and a tailor marked them for alterations. Then the clerk showed Tomas some socks, underwear, and shoes. Tomas bought two pairs of socks, three undershirts, and two pairs of shorts. He bought a pair of black shoes. Jack gave the clerk his address and asked him to deliver the clothes.

25

Jack said, "We'd better go home. It's late and we might miss dinner."

Tomas said, "Let's go."

30

2. Special Problems

- (2) I want to buy a new suit, several PAIRS of socks and some underwear.
- (5) They have a good MEN'S WEAR department and the clerks are courteous and helpful.
- (5) They have a good men's wear department and the CLERKS are courteous and helpful.
- (7) Green's is not too expensive, and they have good MERCHANDISE.
- (14) What is your SIZE?
- (18) TRY these ON for size.
- (29) It's late and we might MISS dinner.
- (2) I want to buy a new suit, several PAIRS of socks, and some underwear.

Observe the following uses of PAIR:

He is wearing a PAIR of blue pants.	OR	He is wearing blue pants.
She has a PAIR of white gloves.	OR	She has white gloves.
Have you seen my other PAIR of glasses.	OR	Have you seen my other glasses
Jack likes his PAIR of bright pajamas.	OR	Jack likes his bright pajamas.
Tomas is wearing a PAIR of black socks.	OR	Tomas is wearing black socks.

PAIR may be used for those articles which are considered to be composed of two complementary parts.

Note that PAIR is not used with the following:

Dr. Johnson always wears a white shirt.
Louise has a new coat.
Tomas likes to wear a red tie.
Dorothy has a new dress.

Exercise: Students use PAIR whenever possible in the following:

Teacher: shoes
Student A: Jack has a pair of brown shoes.
Teacher: dresses
Student B: Louise bought some new dresses.
Teacher: gloves
Student C: Tomas bought a pair of gray gloves.

Continue the exercise. Teacher: pajamas, socks, shirts, coats, pants, ties, etc.

- (5) They have a good MEN'S WEAR department and the clerks are courteous and helpful.

Ties are men's wear.
Trousers are men's wear.
Shirts are men's wear.
Men's shirts are men's wear.

MEN'S WEAR refers to merchandise of a particular type; namely, clothes worn by men.

- (5) They have a good men's wear department and the CLERKS are courteous and helpful.

Observe the following:

The CLERK worked in a store. He provided service for the CUSTOMERS.
The DOCTOR and the DENTIST practice in the clinic. They have many PATIENTS.
The LAWYER practices law in his office. He has some CLIENTS.

Exercise A:

Teacher: clerk
Student A: The clerk has customers.
Teacher: lawyer
Student B: The lawyer has clients.
Teacher: dentist
Student C: The dentist has patients.

Continue the exercise. Teacher: doctor, clerk, dentist, lawyer, etc.

Exercise B:

Teacher: customer
Student A: The clerk has customers.
Teacher: client
Student B: The lawyer has clients.
Teacher: patients
Student C: The doctor has patients.

Continue the exercise. Teacher: customer, client, patient, etc.

- (7) Green's is not too expensive, and they have good MERCHANDISE.

Observe the following:

Shoes are MERCHANDISE.
Candy is MERCHANDISE.
Tables are MERCHANDISE.
Radios are MERCHANDISE.

MERCHANDISE is a general word used for articles offered for sale.

- (14) What is your SIZE?

Observe the following:

Shirts

Shirts usually get their size from the measurement of the collar in inches and the length of the sleeve. A typical shirt size is 15-1/2 - 33, which means a collar that is 15-1/2 inches in circumference and a sleeve that is 33 inches long.

Shoes

An average shoe size is 9-1/2 C. The number refers to the length of the shoe, and the letter to its width. A width of "A" is narrow, and a width of "D" is wide. Shoe sizes from 8 to 12 are common.

Trousers, belts

These sizes are the same as the waist measurement in inches.

Suits, overcoats, sport coats

These sizes are the same as the chest measurement in inches.

Hats

Typical hat sizes are 7, 7-1/8, 7-1/4, 7-3/8, 7-1/2

Exercise A:

Teacher: 7-1/2 C.
Student A: You are buying shoes.
Teacher: 7-5/8
Student B: You are buying a hat.
Teacher: 10 C
Student C: You are buying shoes.

Continue the exercise. Teacher: 15 - 34, 10-1/2, 34, 11 B, 7-1/2, 42.

Exercise B:

Teacher: What size shoe do you wear?
Student A: 10-1/2 D
Teacher: What size belt do you wear?
Student B: 40.
Teacher: What size shirt do you wear?
Student C: 15 - 32

Continue the exercise. Teacher using the following: coat, trousers, shoe, sock, hat, belt, overcoat, etc.

(18) TRY these ON for size.

Review Lesson XII 3. TRY ON is similar grammatically to PUT ON and TAKE OFF.

Observe the following:

John: Is this coat the right size?
Tomas: I don't know. I'm going to TRY it ON.
Jack: It is too big. TRY ON this coat.
Tomas: It is too small. I'll TRY the other coat ON.
Jack: That coat is the right size.

TRY ON is the action for ascertaining whether an article of clothing is the correct size.

Note:

He put the coat on. He tried the coat on. He took the coat off.	He put on the coat. He tried on the coat. He took off the coat.	He put it on. He tried it on. He took it off.
---	---	---

(29) It's late and we might MISS dinner.

Observe the following:

Miss

Tomas wanted to go to Riverside City. The train left at 10:30. He arrived at the station at 10:45. He did not go to Riverside City. He missed the train.

Louise wanted to go to the lecture. She got on the bus to go to the auditorium. The bus arrived very late. When she got there, the audience was leaving. Louise missed the lecture.

Breakfast is served in the hotel from 8 a.m. to 9 a.m. Jack got to the dining room at 9:30. The dining room was closed. Jack missed his breakfast.

Lose

Have you seen my English book? I had it yesterday, but I don't have it today. I lost it. I can't find it.

Riverside High School got 6 points in the football game. Hillcrest High School didn't get any points in the football game. Hillcrest High School lost the game. Riverside High School didn't lose.

The man lost his position because he was sick.

Waste

Jack's friend had an examination today. He didn't study last night. He intended to study but he didn't. He listened to the radio and read the newspaper. He wasted two hours.

Mr. Franklin went to the restaurant and ordered a cup of coffee. He drank just a little. He wasted most of the coffee.

Tomas put a stamp on an envelope. He wrote the address on the envelope, but he made a mistake. It was not the right address. He could not use the envelope. He wasted the envelope. He wasted the stamp, too.

Exercise: Use miss, lose, or waste to complete the following:

- A. Jack arrived late at the bus station. The bus left before he arrived. He _____.
- B. Jack: Where is your pen? You had it yesterday.
Louise: I don't know. I don't have it. I _____.

- C. Mr. Franklin bought three cigars. He smoked two of them, but he broke the third one. He _____.
- D. The university played a basketball game. It scored 76 points. The opposition scored 80 points. The university _____.
- E. The class began at 8:00, but Tomas arrived at 9:00. He _____.
- F. Jack had three hours to write a composition. He listened to the radio for two hours and read a magazine for one hour. Jack _____.
- G. Louise bought a box of candy. It fell on the floor. She couldn't eat any of it. She _____.
- H. Where is my watch? I can't find it. I _____.
- I. The train left at 6:00. Louise arrived at 6:05. Louise _____.
- J. I don't want to play tennis with you. I _____.

3. Conversation for Memorization

Tomas: I'd like to see some suits.
Clerk: What size do you wear?
Tomas: I don't know.
Clerk: I'll measure you. Size 38. What color do you want?
Tomas: Dark blue.
Clerk: Try this coat on.
Tomas: Thank you.

LESSON XIV
VOCABULARY

1. Review
2. Jack and Louise Arrange a Visit
3. Special Problems: SPEND, ABOUT, GO and COME,
BY, REMIND and REMEMBER
4. Conversation for Memorization

1. Review

1. Students summarize the events that occurred in the selection
Tomas Buys Some Clothes.
2. Students summarize the events that occurred in the selection
Evening and Morning Activities.
3. Students repeat from memory the Conversations in Lessons XII
and XIII.

2. Jack and Louise Arrange a Visit

Jack and Louise received an invitation from their aunt and uncle to spend a few days with them. Their aunt and uncle do not live in Riverside City. They live in Springfield. Springfield is about five hundred miles from Riverside City. Louise wanted to go by plane, but Springfield does not have an airport and it is necessary to take a long bus ride from a nearby big city. So Jack and Louise decided to go by train.

5

Jack telephoned the railroad station to ask about trains. He said, "I'd like to make a sleeping car reservation to Springfield for next Monday."

10

The railroad agent asked him, "Would you like to take the 10 p.m. train that gets to Springfield at 4 a.m.?"

Jack answered, "No, that's too late. Is there an earlier train?"

The agent said, "There is one at 2:30 in the afternoon. There are no sleeping cars on that train."

15

Jack said, "Well, that's all right. How much is a ticket?"

"A round-trip ticket is \$20.41. A one-way ticket is \$12.00."

Jack said, "Thank you." And the agent said, "You're welcome. Goodbye."

Jack explained the situation to his sister and they began to prepare for the trip. Louise said, "We must remember to send Tomas a post-card."

20

3. Special Problems

- (1) Jack and Louise received an invitation from their aunt and uncle to SPEND a few days with them.
- (3) Springfield is ABOUT five hundred miles from Riverside City. and
(8) Jack telephoned the railroad station to ask ABOUT trains.
- (4) Louise wanted to GO by plane....
- (4) Louise wanted to go BY plane....
- (20) We must REMEMBER to send Tomas a post card.
- (1) Jack and Louise received an invitation from their aunt and uncle to SPEND a few days with them.

Observe the following:

- A. I SPENT two weeks in Bermuda last year.
We always SPEND the winter in Florida.
Where did you SPEND Christmas?
- B. She SPENT \$14 for a new hat.
The government SPENDS millions of dollars for defense every year.
He SPENT his last dime for coffee.

SPEND can mean use; it can also mean consume with words indicating time or money. Pass does not usually occur in the situations presented above.

Exercise:

- Teacher: a month in Europe next year
Student A: I'm going to spend a month in Europe next year.
Teacher: ten dollars yesterday
Student B: He spent ten dollars yesterday.
Teacher: two weeks in South America last year.
Student C: She spent two weeks in South America last year.

Continue the exercise. Teacher: 5 million dollars every year; four years in Italy; ten years in prison; fifty cents yesterday; 8 hours every day at her job; \$1.50 for candy last week; all his salary in one day.

- (3) Springfield is ABOUT five hundred miles from Riverside City. and
(8) Jack telephoned the railroad station to ask ABOUT trains.

Observe the following:

- A. The lecture finished at ABOUT 9:30.
He is ABOUT six feet tall.
She is ABOUT 32 years old.
The temperature is about 50°.

ABOUT ordinarily means approximately, more or less, when it precedes a number.

- B. Did you talk ABOUT the program?
John told me ABOUT his new car.
I called the library ABOUT the book.

ABOUT frequently means concerning, relative to, when it precedes a Class 1 word.

Exercise:

- Teacher: He arrived at about 6 o'clock.
Student A: He arrived at approximately 6 o'clock.
Teacher: We had a conversation about trains.
Student B: We had a conversation concerning trains.
Teacher: They saw about twenty automobiles.
Student C: They saw approximately twenty automobiles.

Continue the exercise. Teacher: She is about 21 years old; The lecturer talked about mathematics; I asked a question about tickets to the concert; Mary wrote a letter to John about the university; It is about 10 o'clock now; There are about 15 people in this class; He has about \$23.00.

- (4) Louise wanted to GO by plane....

Observe the following:

Jack asked Mary, "Did you GO to the lecture yesterday?"

Jack's question does not indicate that he attended the lecture. It does not indicate that he didn't attend the lecture, either.

Jack asked Mary, "Did you come to the lecture yesterday?"

Jack's question indicates that he attended the lecture. The word come gives this information. Go describes motion in an unspecified direction. Come describes motion toward the past, present, or future location of the person speaking.

The answer to a request sentence with come usually also includes the word come.

Exercise:

- Teacher: Jack said, "Are you coming to the concert?" Is Jack attending the concert?
Student A: Yes.
Teacher: Tomas asked, "Can you come to my home next Thursday?" Will Tomas be there?
Student B: Yes.
Teacher: Louise said, "Helen is going to the movies tonight." Is Louise going to the movies?
Student C: I don't know.

Continue the exercise. Teacher: Tomas said, "Louise is coming to the program this evening." Is Tomas going to the program?; George asked, "Can you go to the movies now?" Is George going to the movies?; George asked, "Can you come to the store now?" Is George going to the store?; John said, "He is going to Detroit tomorrow." Is John going to Detroit?; Mary explained, "My mother is going to Riverside City next week." Is Mary going to Riverside City?; Henry said, "Please come to my house tomorrow." Is Henry going to be in his house tomorrow?; Mr. Franklin asked, "Can you come to the hotel now?" Is Mr. Franklin going to be in the hotel?

- (4) Louise wanted to go BY plane.

Observe the following:

John always travels BY train.
He went to Detroit BY bus.
Helen rode to her meeting BY taxi.

Exercise:

Teacher: We went to Europe.
Student A: We went by boat.
Teacher: He went to Detroit.
Student B: He went by bus.
Teacher: They came to the movies.
Student C: They came by car.

Continue the exercise. Teacher: John went to Chicago. I went to Australia. She went to the meeting. They went to Bermuda. Louise went to the football game. We went to Mexico. Mr. Franklin went to New York.

- (20) We must REMEMBER to send Tomas a post card.

Observe the following:

John REMEMBERED my appointment.
John REMEMBERED the banquet.
John REMEMBERED Louise's party.

Remember means "have a memory of"

John reminded me of my appointment.
John reminded us of the banquet.
John reminded her of Louise's party.

Remind means "cause to remember" in the sentences above.

This movie reminded her of the movie last week. (Both movies were about Europe.) John reminds me of Tomas. (Both John and Tomas are short and have black hair.) Your coat reminds him of his coat. (Both coats are brown.)

Remind is also used when two situations have something in common and the first causes a memory of the second.

Exercise:

Use remind or remember to complete the following:

- A. I saw John yesterday. I believed that it was Tomas. Both boys have black hair. Both are short.
- B. John forgot his appointment with the dentist. The dentist's secretary telephoned him about it.
- C. The teacher asked John the date of the discovery of America. John could tell her.
- D. Mary never remembers to practice the piano until her mother tells her.
- E. I had a hat exactly like the one you are wearing.
- F. He can tell you all the details of the drama he saw last week.
- G. The summer in Ann Arbor is very warm. The summer in my country is also very warm.
- H. The man asked me where I was in 1952. I could tell him.
- I. I don't want to forget that meeting tonight. You can help me to remember.
- J. He never forgets to cut the grass. His wife tells him every week.

4. Conversation for Memorization

Clerk: May I help you?
Jack: I'd like to ask about trains to Detroit.
Clerk: There's a train to Detroit at 2:51.
Jack: How much is a round-trip ticket?
Clerk: A round-trip ticket is \$2.92.

LESSON XV

VOCABULARY

1. Arrival in Springfield.
2. Special Problems: NORTH, RIGHT, STRAIGHT AHEAD
3. Conversation for Memorization

1. Arrival in Springfield

Jack and Louise got to Springfield at 11:30 at night. They didn't want to wake up their aunt and uncle, so they asked the information clerk about hotels.

Louise asked, "How do we get to the hotel?"

- 5 The clerk answered, "Go out of the front door of the station, then you are on West Street. Turn north and walk a block and a half. Hotel Springfield is on the corner of West Street and Green Avenue."

- 10 Jack and Louise didn't have any difficulty getting to the hotel, but when they arrived the clerk said, "I'm very sorry. We don't have any rooms tonight."

Louise asked him, "Can you recommend a place to spend the night?"

The clerk said, "You can try the YMCA and the YWCA. They may have rooms."

Jack asked, "How can we get there?"

- 15 The clerk answered, "Go east on Green Ave as far as Third Street. Turn right on Third Street and go straight ahead for one block. The YMCA and the YWCA are both on the corner of Third Street and Independence Street. The YWCA is across the street from the YMCA."

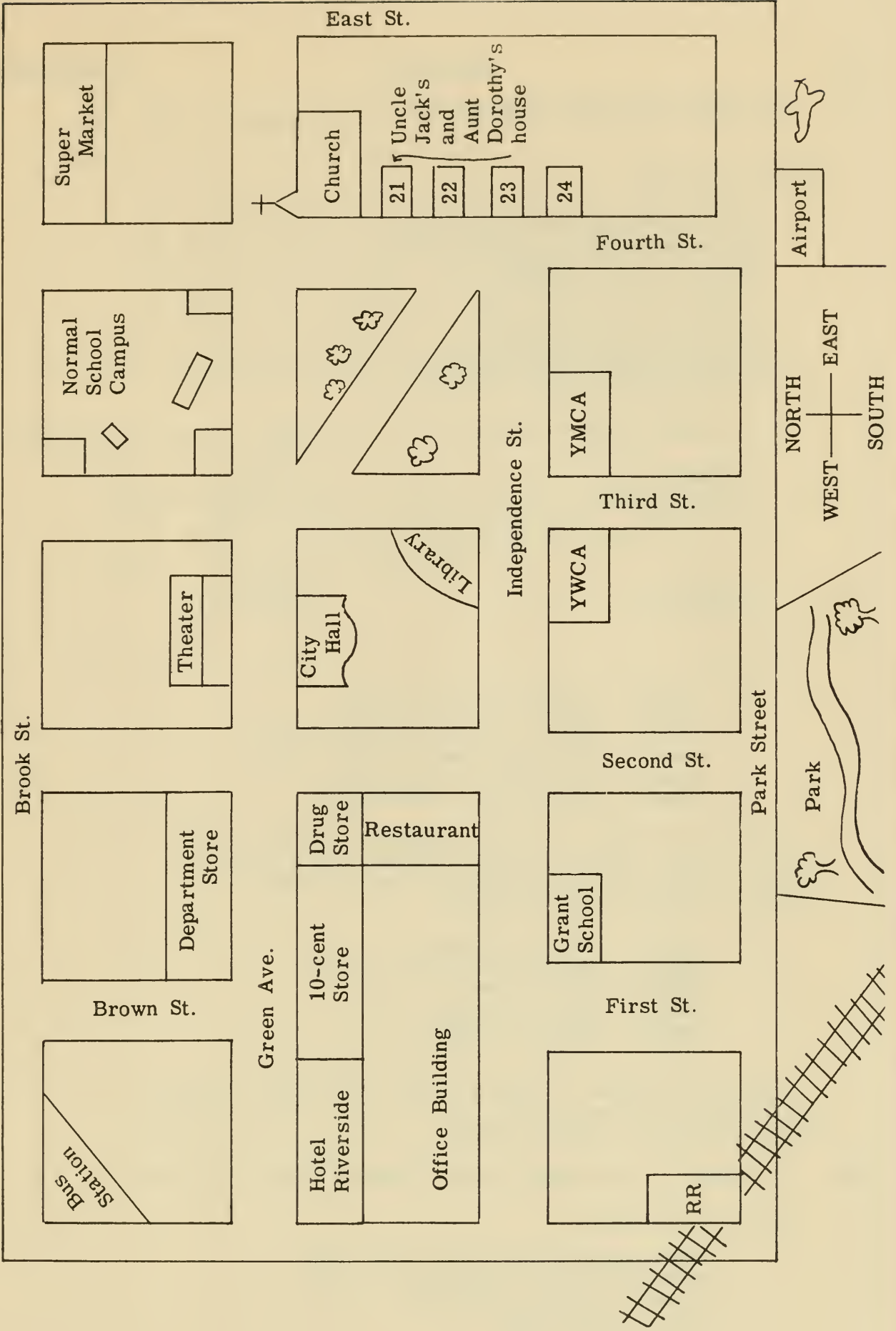
- 20 Louise got a room at the YWCA easily, and Jack didn't have any trouble getting a room at the YMCA.

Jack telephoned his aunt in the morning. She asked, "Where are you?" When Jack told her, she said, "Go east on Independence Street and turn north on Fourth Street. Our house is on the east side of the street, beside the church."

2. Special Problems

- (6) Turn NORTH and walk a block and a half.
- (16) Turn RIGHT on Third Street and go STRAIGHT AHEAD for one block.

RIVERSIDE CITY



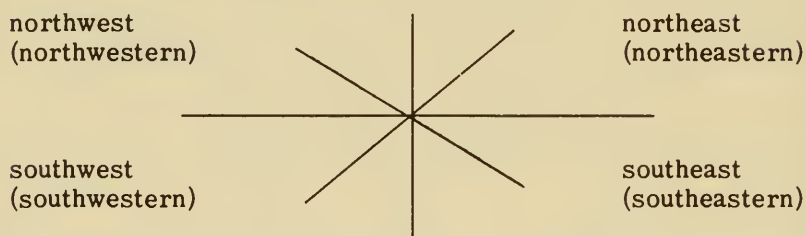
- (6) Turn NORTH and walk a block and a half.

Observe the following:

Canada is NORTH of the United States.
The United States is south of Canada.
France is west of Germany.
Germany is east of France.

Italy is in Southern Europe.
Finland is in northern Europe.
Peru is in western South America.
Philadelphia is in eastern Pennsylvania.

Intermediate points are designated as shown below:



Exercise:

- A. Teacher: Germany is east of France.
Student A: France is west of Germany.
Teacher: Mexico is south of the United States.
Student B: The United States is north of Mexico.
Teacher: Pennsylvania is east of Ohio.
Student C: Ohio is west of Pennsylvania.

Continue the exercise. Teacher: Italy is east of Spain. China is west of Japan. Scotland is north of England. Italy is south of France. Cleveland is north of Cincinnati. Brazil is south of Venezuela. Chile is west of Argentina.

- B. Teacher: Where is Sweden?
Student A: Sweden is in northern Europe.
Teacher: Where is Italy?
Student B: Italy is in southern Europe.
Teacher: Where is Canada?
Student C: Canada is in northern North America.

Continue the exercise. Teacher: Where is New York? Where is San Francisco? Where is China? Where is Peru? Where is Egypt? Where is Capetown? Where is Spain?

- (16) Turn RIGHT on Third Street and go STRAIGHT AHEAD for one block.

Observe the following:

Jack turned left when he got to the corner.
He went STRAIGHT AHEAD for two blocks.
He did not turn for two blocks.
Then he turned RIGHT.

Left, right, and straight ahead are the three principal forward directions.

Exercise: Using the map on page 75, give answers to the following questions:

- A. Jack is at the church. How does he get to the railroad station?
- B. Louise is at the YMCA. How does she get to the hotel?
- C. I am at the super market. How do I get to the restaurant?
- D. You are in the theater. How do you get to the bus station?
- E. He is in the bus station. How does he get to the airport?
- F. We are in the drug store. How do we get to the church?
- G. Jack is at the airport. How does he get to the super market?
- H. I am in the city hall. How do I get to the library?
- I. Jack's aunt is at home. How does she get to the department store?
- J. He is in the theater. How does he get to Grant School?

3. Conversation for Memorization

- Jack: Pardon me, sir. Can you tell me how to get to the hotel?
- Stranger: Surely. Go north on Main Street for five blocks. Turn right at the corner of Main and Lincoln. Go three blocks. The hotel is on the corner of Lincoln and Superior.
- Jack: Thank you very much.

LESSON XVI

VOCABULARY

1. Tomas Goes to the Doctor
2. Special Problems: CATCH; LOOK AT, etc; FEEL
3. Conversation for Memorization

1. Tomas Goes to the Doctor

While Jack and Louise were in Springfield, Tomas caught a cold. When he got up in the morning, his head ached and he began to sneeze. Mrs. Cooper saw him when he came to breakfast and said, "I'm going to take you to see Dr. Johnson."

- 5 Mrs. Cooper and Tomas went to see the doctor immediately after breakfast. Mrs. Cooper spoke to the receptionist. She said, "We'd like to see the doctor, please."

The receptionist answered, "The doctor is busy. Please sit down."

- 10 Tomas said "Thank you", and he and Mrs. Cooper sat in the waiting room. Soon a patient came out of the doctor's office. The receptionist said, "Dr. Johnson will see you now."

Dr. Johnson was a kind, white-haired man. He asked Tomas about his sickness. Tomas said, "I have a cold. Can you give me some medicine?" The doctor asked Tomas, "Do you have a sore throat?"

- 15 Tomas said, "Yes, my throat is a little sore."

The doctor looked at his throat and took his temperature. Then he gave Tomas some pills and some nose drops. He said, "Use these nose drops every four hours. You have a bad cold, but it is not serious. You should rest for a day or two."

- 20 Tomas said, "Thank you, doctor." And they went out of the office. He paid the receptionist and Mrs. Cooper took him home.

Tomas spent the day in bed and felt much better the next morning.

2. Special Problems

- (1) While Jack and Louise were in Springfield, Tomas CAUGHT a cold.
- (16) The doctor LOOKED AT his throat and took his temperature.
- (22) Tomas spent the day in bed and FELT much better the next morning.

- (1) While Jack and Louise were in Springfield, Tomas CAUGHT a cold.

Observe the following:

John caught a cold.
Mary caught influenza.
Did Mary catch influenza?
The little boy caught pneumonia.

John has a cold.
Mary has influenza.
He has a sore throat.
The little boy has pneumonia.
She has a broken leg.
John has astigmatism.

catch is used for communicable diseases.

have is used both for communicable disease and other physical abnormalities.

Exercise:

Teacher: a cold
Student A: Jack caught a cold.
Teacher: a broken arm
Student B: Jack has a broken arm.
Teacher: a turned ankle
Student C: Jack has a turned ankle.

Continue the exercise. Teacher: influenza, a cold, tuberculosis, a toothache, a broken leg, pneumonia, myopia.

- (16) The doctor LOOKED AT his throat and took his temperature.

- a) Observe the use of at in the following:

The doctor looked at Jack's throat.
Jack smiled at Louise.
Tomas laughed at Jack.

At accompanies look, smile, laugh, in situations like the above.

Observe the use of at and in in the following:

Tomas arrived at the station.	He arrived in Michigan.
Jack arrived at the store.	He arrived in the city.
Louise arrived at the concert.	She arrived in the United States.

In general, arrive at precedes a small location; arrive in precedes a large location.

- b) Observe the use of to in the following:

Louise listened to the radio.
We consented to the meeting.
English /sən/ corresponds to Spanish /ción/.
The speaker referred to the situation in Europe.

To accompanies listen, consent, correspond, refer, in situations like the above.

Observe the use of to and with in the following:

We agreed to the plan.

The Chinese agreed to a meeting.

Do you agree to that idea?

We agreed with Jack.

They agreed with the Secretary-General.

Yes, I agree with you.

Note that agree with is followed by a word indicating a person.

c) Observe the use of about in the following: (Lesson XIV 3)

Don't worry about your classes.

He is always thinking about his country.

She dreams about her trip.

About follows worry, think, dream, in situations like those above.

d) Observe the use of on in the following:

A child depends on his parents.

He insists on a new car every year.

On follows depend and insist in situations like those above.

e) Observe the use of of in the following:

He tired of his classes after two weeks.

Jack tired of the book that he was reading.

Of follows tire in situations like those above.

f) Observe the use of from in the following:

Spanish differs from English.

Japan differs from China.

Republicans differ from Democrats.

From follows differ in situations like those above.

Exercise:

A. Teacher: insist

Student A: He insisted on it.

Teacher: tire

Student B: He tired of it.

Teacher: depend

Student C: He depended on it.

Continue the exercise. Teacher: dream, refer, smile, think, laugh, worry, listen, look, tire, insist, listen, consent, etc.

B. Teacher: her

Student A: I agree with her.

Teacher: the idea

Student B: I agree to the idea.

Teacher: John

Student C: I agree with John.

Continue the exercise. Teacher: Henry, the suggestion, the idea, Mary, the meeting, Mr. Franklin, the report.

- C. Teacher: green, blue
Student A: Green differs from blue.
Teacher: English, French
Student B: English differs from French.
Teacher: black, white
Student C: Black differs from white.

Continue the exercise. Teacher: lake, ocean; horse, cow; pen, pencil; paper, wood; water, wine; vocabulary, grammar.

- D. Teacher: Europe
Student A: I arrived in Europe.
Teacher: Rome
Student B: I arrived in Rome.
Teacher: the theater
Student C: I arrived at the theater.

Continue the exercise. Teacher: the drug store, South America, Caracas, the lecture, Ann Arbor, Asia, Germany.

(22) Tomas spent the day in bed and FELT much better the next morning.

Observe the following:

- Mrs. Cooper: How do you feel today, Tomas?
Tomas: I feel much better today. I did not feel well yesterday.

Feel is used with well, better, worse, fine, sick, etc. to answer questions about health.

Exercise: Memorize this conversation:

- Jack: Hello, Tomas. My mother told me that you were sick. How are you today?
Tomas: I felt very sick on Saturday, but I feel better today.

3. Conversation for Memorization

- Doctor: What can I do for you?
Patient: I have a cold. Can you give me some medicine?
Doctor: Do you have a sore throat?
Patient: I had a sore throat yesterday, but not today.
Doctor: Do you have a headache?
Patient: No.
Doctor: Use these nose-drops every four hours.
Patient: Thank you. Shall I come back?
Doctor: Yes. Come back tomorrow.

LESSON XVII

VOCABULARY

1. Jack and Louise Return to Riverside City
2. The Seasons
3. Special Problem: WINDY, CLOUDY, etc.
4. The Fahrenheit Thermometer
5. Special Problem: COVERED WITH, etc.
6. Conversation

1. Jack and Louise Return to Riverside City

Jack and Louise arrived at Riverside City on Sunday. Mr. and Mrs. Cooper and Tomas met them at the railroad station. Mrs. Cooper asked them, "How are your aunt and uncle?"

5 Jack answered, "They're fine. They sent their greetings. They took good care of us and we enjoyed the trip. How have you been?"

Mr. Cooper said, "Your mother and I have been fine. Tomas had a little cold but it is gone now."

Jack said, "It seems cooler in Riverside City."

Louise said, "Yes, fall is coming."

10 Tomas asked, "Does it snow during the fall?"

Jack answered, "It doesn't usually snow in the fall. The leaves turn yellow and it is often windy in October and November, but snow does not usually come until December. In the winter the temperature falls below 32°. The ground is often covered with snow."

15 Tomas said, "You use the Fahrenheit scale, don't you? We use the Centigrade thermometer in Mexico. 32° is 0° on the Centigrade scale. That is quite cold."

Louise said, "Winter isn't too long. Spring is my favorite season. Then the grass is green again, and the flowers begin to bloom."

20 Jack said, "I like fall. The leaves are pretty and it is also football season. It rains too much in spring."

Louise answered, "Yes. But April showers bring May flowers, you know."

Mrs. Cooper said, "I like summer. Then the days are long, the temperature rises, and we can go swimming. Summer is my favorite season."

25 Tomas said, "I have never seen snow except on the tops of mountains, but I think it is too cold in winter. I prefer summer, too."

2. The Seasons

- (9) Yes, fall is coming.

Note the following descriptions of the seasons in the North Central States:

Fall.

Fall is cool or warm. It's usually windy. The leaves are falling. The temperature is falling. Today the temperature is 40°. Fall begins in September.

Winter.

Winter is cold. We have snow in winter. The temperature is low. Today the temperature is 20°. Winter begins in December.

Spring.

Spring is cool or warm. We have rain in spring. The temperature is rising. Today the temperature is 65°. Spring begins in March.

Summer.

Summer is hot. We have sunshine in summer. The temperature is high. Today the temperature is 90°.

3. Special problem: WINDY, CLOUDY, etc.

- (11) The leaves turn yellow and it is often windy in October and November, but snow does not usually come until December.

Observe the following:

There is a lot of wind. We had some rain yesterday. It has snowed for three days. The sun is not shining today. There are many clouds.	It's windy today. Yes, it was very rainy. It has been snowy this week. It isn't a sunny day. It's a cloudy day.
--	---

Exercise:

Teacher: There is a lot of ice in the street.

Student A: Yes, it is icy.

Teacher: There was a lot of fog.

Student B: Yes, it was foggy.

Teacher: The wind is strong.

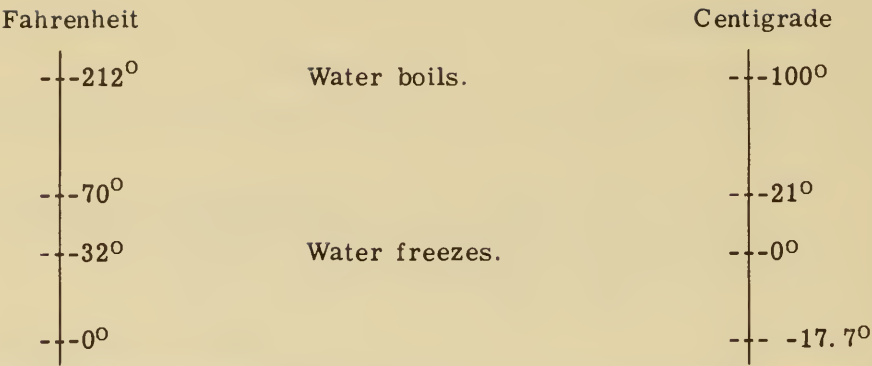
Student C: Yes, it is windy.

Continue the exercise. Teacher: The snow is deep today. The sun is shining. There is a nice breeze. The storm has begun. There are many clouds. We had a lot of rain yesterday. You can see many stars tonight.

4. The Fahrenheit Thermometer

- (15) You use the Fahrenheit scale, don't you?

The thermometer used in many other countries is usually the Centigrade thermometer. The thermometers used in the United States, except those used in laboratories, are usually Fahrenheit thermometers.



The formula for changing Fahrenheit temperature to Centigrade temperature is:

$$C = \frac{5(F - 32)}{9}$$

The formula for changing Centigrade temperature to Fahrenheit temperature is:

$$F = \frac{9C}{5} + 32$$

The chart below indicates approximate average Fahrenheit temperatures during a fall month, a winter month, a spring month, and a summer month in states which are representative of each section of the United States:

State	Approximate Average Temperatures (Fahrenheit)			
	SEPTEMBER	JANUARY	MAY	JULY
California	69°	54°	65°	75°
Colorado	50	35	40	75
Connecticut	60	30	60	85
Florida	80	63	77	90
Illinois	65	27	60	83
Louisiana	80	57	77	85
Maine	60	25	55	74
Massachusetts	67	30	60	80
Michigan	67	25	60	80
Missouri	77	30	70	90
Nevada	60	30	58	77
New York	67	33	65	80
Oregon	67	40	57	73
Texas	83	55	77	85

5. Special Problem: COVERED WITH, etc.

Observe the following:

He is married to a Cuban girl.
The cup is filled with coffee.
She was frightened by the dog.
The teacher was pleased with the composition.
The boy was convinced of his error.
I am surprised by your question.

Note the use of TO, WITH, BY, and OF in these sentences.

Exercise:

Teacher: a dentist, (married)
Student A: She is married to a dentist.
Teacher: the mistake, (convinced)
Student B: I am convinced of the mistake.
Teacher: the visit, (surprised)
Student C: He was surprised by the visit.

Continue the exercise. Teacher: your progress, (pleased); the airplane, (frightened); the desk, (covered); people, (filled); the movie, (pleased); a nurse, (married); paint, (covered).

6. Conversation for Memorization

Tomas: Hello. How are you?
Mr. Franklin: Fine, thank you. It's a warm day, isn't it?
Tomas: Yes, but it's a little windy. I think it's getting cold.
Mr. Franklin: Yes, I think it is.

LESSON XVIII

VOCABULARY

1. Helen Has a Party.
2. Special Problem: ENTER, ENJOY.
3. Special Problem: MAKE, DO.
4. Conversations for Memorization.

1. Helen Has a Party

Helen is a friend of Louise Cooper. She visited Louise in order to invite her to a party. She also asked Tomas and Jack. She said, "I'm inviting a few friends to my house Sunday afternoon and I'd like to have you come. It will be at 3 o'clock."

5 Tomas said, "Thank you for the invitation. We'd like to come very much."

Helen said, "Good. I'll see you then."

Louise, Jack and Tomas went to Helen's house at 3 o'clock on Sunday. Jack rang the doorbell. Helen answered the door. She said, "Hello. I'm glad to see you. How are you? Come in."

10 Louise, Jack, and Tomas said, "Thank you." They entered the house.

Helen said, "Let me take your coats."

15 She took their coats and put them into the closet. Then she said, "Come into the living room I want you to meet some friends of mine. This is Harriet Jones, June Smith, William Harrison, and Bill Miller. This is Tomas Gomez from Mexico, and Jack Cooper. You know his sister, Louise."

They all said, "How do you do?" Tomas shook hands with the other boys. The group sat and talked for an hour and then they played some new records on the phonograph. Helen made some coffee. Then the group began to leave. Louise said, "We had a very nice time." And Tomas said, "Yes, we enjoyed the records."

20 Helen accompanied them to the door. She said, "I hope you can come again soon. Goodbye."

Louise, Jack, and Tomas said, "Goodbye."

2. Special Problem: ENTER, ENJOY

(10) They entered the house.

(19) Yes, we enjoyed the records.

Observe the following:	
He entered the room. The automobile entered the tunnel. Mr. Franklin entered the house.	We enjoyed his lecture. The students enjoyed the class. They enjoyed the movie.
Note that ENTER is followed directly by THE ROOM, THE TUNNEL, and THE HOUSE with no intervening word.	
Note that ENJOY is followed directly by HIS LECTURE, THE CLASS, and THE MOVIE with no intervening word.	

Exercise:

Teacher: the room, (enter)
Student A: He entered the room.
Teacher: the drama, (enjoy)
Student B: He enjoyed the drama.
Teacher: the office (enter)
Student C: He entered the office.

Continue the exercise. Teacher: the new book, (enjoy); that football game, (enjoy); the building, (enter); the seminar, (enjoy); the class, (enter); his house, (enter); the dinner, (enjoy).

3. Special Problem: MAKE, DO

(18) Helen made some coffee.

a) Observe the use of MAKE.

Mrs. Cooper made a delicious cake. Louise can make apple pie. She made dinner last night.
<u>Make</u> is used for <u>prepare</u> with foods.
Many automobiles are made in Detroit. They make movies in Hollywood. Louise makes her dresses.
<u>Make</u> is used here for <u>construct</u> , <u>produce</u> , <u>fabricate</u> .
Mr. Franklin makes a lot of money by driving a taxi. That worker makes \$2.00 an hour. Executives make a good salary.
<u>Make</u> is used here for <u>earn money</u> .

b) Observe these miscellaneous uses of make.

Tomas made an appointment with the doctor for next Wednesday at 2 o'clock.
 Louise and Jack made a reservation on the train.
 We are making an effort to learn English.
 Mr. Franklin made a mistake. He said that all Brazilians speak Spanish.

c) Observe the use of DO.

John does a lot of traveling.
 Jack writes many compositions and his sister does the typing.
 Mrs. Franklin does the washing on Monday.
 That company does cleaning.

Do is used with many Class 2 words + ing to describe an activity.

What are you going to do tonight?	I'm going to go to the lecture.
What did you do yesterday?	I went to Detroit.
What do you do after lunch?	I go to my French class.

Do is used in questions like these to obtain an answer describing an activity.

d) Observe these miscellaneous uses of do.

Please do me a favor. Lend me your pen.
 John always does his homework early. He completes it in the afternoon.
 Louise always does her best. She doesn't like to do work badly.

Exercise: Use make or do in the following:

Teacher: \$200 a week.
 Student A: He makes \$200 a week.
 Teacher: a lot of swimming
 Student B: He does a lot of swimming.
 Teacher: an appointment
 Student C: He made an appointment.

Continue the exercise. Teacher: cleaning, a mistake, a favor, her hats, a cake, his best, a reservation, etc.

4. Conversations for Memorization

- A. Helen: I'm going to have a party on Sunday. Can you come?
 Tomas: Yes. Thank you for the invitation. What time would you like me to come?
 Helen: At two o'clock.
- B. Tomas: I had a very nice time. I enjoyed the party.
 Helen: I hope you can come again soon. Goodbye.
 Tomas: Goodbye.

LESSON XIX

VOCABULARY

1. Tomas Invites Helen to a Play.
2. Special Problem: JUST
3. Special Problem: PICK UP
4. Special Problem: Ticket Reservations.
5. Conversation for Memorization.

1. Tomas Invites Helen to a Play

Tomas enjoyed Helen's party very much. He wanted to thank her for inviting him. He called her up the next day. She said, "Hello."

Tomas said, "Is Helen there?"

Helen answered, "This is Helen."

Tomas said, "Hello. How are you? I wanted to tell you that I enjoyed your party very much yesterday."

5

Helen said, "Thank you. I'm glad you came."

Tomas said, "There is a good play at the theater this week. Would you like to go this Friday evening? It is at the theater just this week."

Helen said, "I'd like to go very much."

10

Tomas said, "Good. May I pick you up at about 7:45?"

Helen said, "Yes. Thank you for asking me. I'll see you Friday. Goodbye."
"Goodbye."

Tomas telephoned the theater and reserved two tickets for Friday night.

2. Special Problem: JUST

(9) It is at the theater JUST this week.

a) Observe the following:

The play was not at the theater last week. It is not going to be at the theater next week. It is at the theater just this week.

He is not a doctor. He is not an intern. He is just a medical student.

Louise cannot play the violin. She can just play the piano.

George cannot vote. He is only 17. He is just a boy.

Just means "only" in these situations. Note that it precedes constructions like this week, a medical student, and play.

Exercise:

Teacher: Do you have a pen?
Student A: No. I just have a pencil.
Teacher: Do you have \$10?
Student B: No. I just have \$9.
Teacher: Do you like cigars?
Student C: No. I just like cigarettes.

Continue the exercise. Teacher: Are you a doctor? Does he speak Spanish and English? Does she teach 10 hours? Did you read 5 books last week? Are you 21 years old? Can you drive a bus? Does your house have 10 rooms?

b) Observe the following:

It is just 10:30 now.
This coffee is just right.
There are just 10 students in the class.

Just sometimes means "exactly" in situations like these. Note that ambiguity is possible if other lexical items do not clarify the situation:

Just meaning "only": It is just 8:30. It is not late. We have a lot of time.

Just meaning "exactly": It is just 8:30. It is not 8:29. It is not 8:31.

Exercise:

Teacher: What time is it?
Student A: It's just 8:31.
Teacher: How many students are there in the class?
Student B: Just 12.
Teacher: When did class begin?
Student C: At just 8:07.

Continue the exercise. Teacher: What is the temperature today? When did the play begin? How many eggs are there in a dozen? How many people live in your city? How many sides does a pentagon have? How many cents are there in a dollar? When does a day begin?

c) Observe the following?

Mr. Franklin is not here. He has just left.
I don't want that book. I have just read it.
He doesn't want to leave. He has just come.

Just in the structure have + just + Class 2 -ed means "very recently."

Exercise:

Teacher: Would you like to have a cup of coffee?
Student A: No. I have just had a cup of coffee.
Teacher: Would you like to eat lunch now?
Student B: No. I have just eaten lunch.
Teacher: Is Mr. Franklin here?
Student C: No. He has just gone.

Continue the exercise. Teacher: Are you going to write a letter to the University? Is Professor Johnson going to speak now? Would you like to go to the library with me? When are you going to graduate from college? Is Dr. Lewis here? Did you finish your composition? Have you read the newspaper today?

3. Special Problem: PICK UP

(11) May I PICK you UP at about 7:45?

Observe the following:	
I'll pick you up at your house.	I'll go to your house in order to get you and take you with me.
He picked me up at 6 o'clock.	He came to my house and we went together.
You can pick up Tomas at the school. You can find him at the school and take him with you.	
Note that <u>pick up</u> is a two-word verb like those of Lesson VI, Pattern IV.	

Exercise:

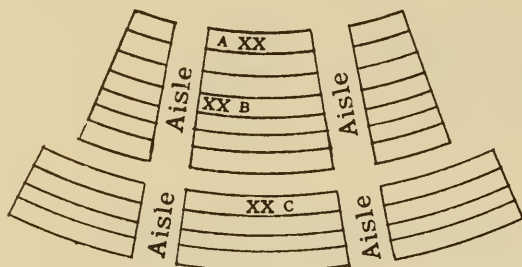
Teacher: I'll pick up John at the corner.
Student A: I'll pick him up at the corner.
Teacher: We will pick up Mary and Louise at 7:30.
Student B: We will pick them up at 7:30.

Continue the exercise. Teacher: Can you pick Mr. Franklin up at noon? I picked her brother up last night. Are you going to pick the boys up tomorrow? She picked up her two sisters at the railroad station. We pick Mr. Johnson up at the corner. Did they pick up the doctor at his office? He picked up the man that he met yesterday.

4. Special Problem: Ticket Reservations

Tomas telephoned the theater and RESERVED TWO TICKETS for Friday night.

Observe the following:



- A. I would like to reserve two seats down front.
- B. I would like two seats on the aisle in the center section.
- C. I would like two seats in the first row of the balcony.

Exercise: Practice this conversation:

Cashier: May I help you?
 Tomas: I'd like two reserved seats for tomorrow, please.
 Cashier: Where would you like them?
 Tomas: Do you have any down front?
 Cashier: I have two on the side.
 Tomas: Do you have any in the center section?
 Cashier: I'm sorry, those are sold out. I have two in the first row in the balcony in the center section.
 Tomas: I'll take those.

5. Conversation for Memorization

Tomas: There's a good movie at the Palace. Have you seen it?
 Louise: No, I haven't.
 Tomas: Would you like to see it Friday night?
 Louise: I'd like to very much.
 Tomas: Fine. I'll pick you up at seven o'clock.

LESSON XX
VOCABULARY REVIEW

1. A Letter to Mexico

1422 Remington St.
Riverside City, ---State
September 12, 195_

Dear Hernando:

When I arrived at Springfield, I didn't know anybody. I took a taxi from 5
the railroad station to a hotel. Before I went into the hotel, the taxi driver
introduced me to a boy named Jack Cooper. He was very kind to me and invited
me to stay at his house with his family. I think that I must find a room in a
rooming house soon so that I do not inconvenience the Coopers and so that I am
nearer the university. 10

It is very pleasant to live with the Coopers. We get up early every morn-
ing when the alarm clock rings, and have a big breakfast, usually cereal, eggs,
orange juice and coffee. Mrs. Cooper is an excellent cook.

I had to buy some clothes after I got here. Clothes are good here, but a
little expensive. I got a suit, some socks and underwear, and a pair of shoes 15
at the Green Department Store.

I had a cold and spent a day in bed about a week ago, but it was not serious.
Mrs. Cooper took me to see Dr. Johnson, and he gave me some nose drops and
some pills. I got over the cold rapidly, and now I am well again.

The fall semester of the university opens next week, and I must decide 20
about courses. Jack Cooper is going to help me register.

I hope that you and all the family are well. You will receive a letter
from me when I have begun my studies.

Sincerely,

Tomas 25

P. S. Can you send me some pictures of Mexico City? The Coopers are
interested in knowing more about my country.

2. Review of Conversations

a) Lesson XI:

Tomas:	Are you waiting for the train?
Louise:	Yes, I hope it comes soon.
Tomas:	Trains are frequently late. I expect that it will be late.
Louise:	I hope you are wrong.

b) Lesson XII:

Jack: Do you want me to wake you up in the morning?
Tomas: Yes, please. I'd like to get up early. I have to do many things.
Jack: I'll wake you up at 7:00. Is that too early?
Tomas: No, that's fine. I usually get up early.

c) Lesson XIII:

Tomas: I'd like to see some suits.
Clerk: What size do you wear?
Tomas: I don't know.
Clerk: I'll measure you. Size 38. What color do you want?
Tomas: Dark blue.
Clerk: Try this coat on.
Tomas: Thank you.

d) Lesson XIV:

Clerk: May I help you?
Jack: I'd like to ask about trains to Detroit.
Clerk: There's a train to Detroit at 2:51.
Jack: How much is a round-trip ticket?
Clerk: A round-trip ticket is \$2.92.

e) Lesson XV:

Jack: Pardon me, sir. Can you tell me how to get to the hotel?
Stranger: Surely. Go north on Main Street for five blocks. Turn right at the corner of Main and Lincoln. Go three blocks. The hotel is on the corner of Lincoln and Superior.
Jack: Thank you very much.

f) Lesson XVI:

Doctor: What can I do for you?
Patient: I have a cold. Can you give me some medicine?
Doctor: Do you have a sore throat?
Patient: I had a sore throat yesterday, but not today.
Doctor: Do you have a headache?
Patient: No.
Doctor: Use these nose drops every four hours.
Patient: Thank you. Shall I come back?
Doctor: Yes. Come back tomorrow.

g) Lesson XVII:

Tomas: Hello. How are you?
Mr. Franklin: Fine, thank you. It's a warm day, isn't it?
Tomas: Yes, but it's a little windy. I think it's getting cold.
Mr. Franklin: Yes, I think it is.

h) Lesson XVIII:

1. Helen: I'm going to have a party on Sunday. Can you come?
Tomas: Yes. Thank you for the invitation. What time would you like me to come?
Helen: At two o'clock.
2. Tomas: I had a very nice time. I enjoyed the party.
Helen: I hope you can come again soon. Goodbye.
Tomas: Goodbye.

i) Lesson XIX:

- Tomas: There's a good movie at the Palace. Have you seen it?
Louise: No, I haven't.
Tomas: Would you like to see it Friday night?
Louise: I'd like to very much.
Tomas: Fine. I'll pick you up at seven o'clock.

LESSON XXI

VOCABULARY

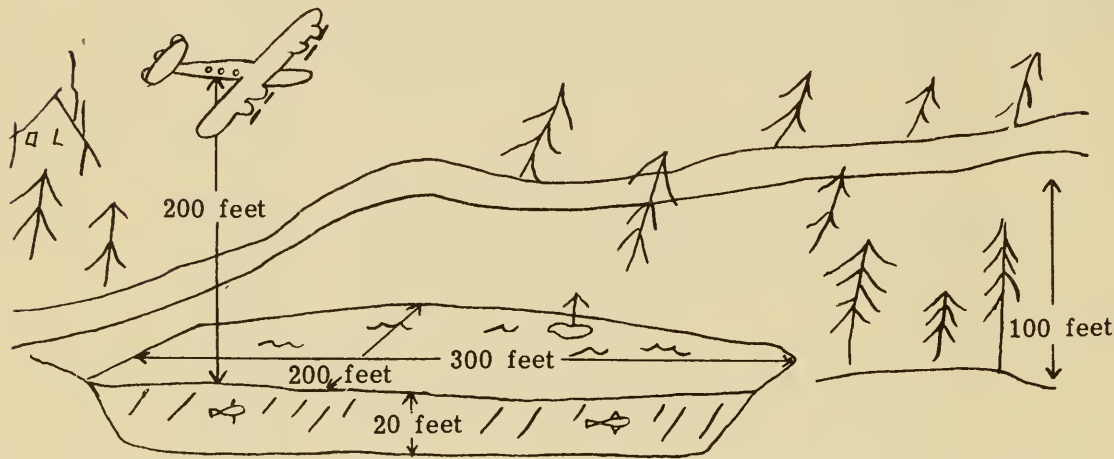
1. A Description of a Lake
2. Special Problems: LONG, WIDE;
DEEP, THICK; TALL, HIGH
3. English Measurement
4. Conversation for Memorization

1. A Description of a Lake

Jack was describing a lake that he had visited during the summer. He said to Tomas, "It is not a big lake. It is about 300 feet long and 200 feet wide. It is not very deep either. It is about 20 feet deep in the center. It is surrounded by pine trees. Some of them are more than 100 feet tall. It is in the northern part of this state. Many people go to the lake to fish. They fish in winter and in summer. The ice on the lake is sometimes one foot thick. They must cut holes in the ice in order to fish."

Tomas asked Jack, "How do you get there?"

- 10 Jack said, "We usually go by car, but it is possible to get there by plane. The planes fly over the lake. They fly very low, only about 200 feet high."



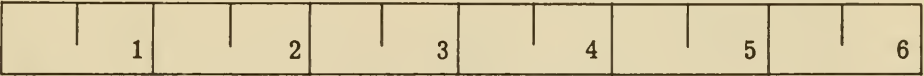
2. Special Problems

- (2) It is about 300 feet long and 200 feet wide.

Observe the following:
This paper is 11 inches long and 8-1/2 inches wide. The classroom is about 20 feet wide and 30 feet long. The blackboard is about 8 feet long and 3 feet wide. One foot is 12 inches long.
<u>Long</u> and <u>wide</u> are used in two-dimensional measurement. <u>Long</u> describes the greater and <u>wide</u> the smaller of two dimensions.

Exercise:


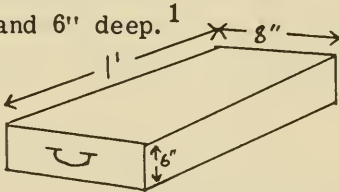
Teacher: How long is the desk?
Student A: It is 4 feet long.
Teacher: How wide is the desk?
Student B: It is 2 feet wide.



Teacher: How long is this room?
Student C: It is 30 feet long.

Continue the exercise. Teacher: How wide is this room? How long is this paper? How wide is this paper? How long is the window? How wide is the window? How long is the book? How wide is the book?

- (3) It is about 20 feet deep.
- (7) The ice on the lake is sometimes one foot thick.

Observe the following:
The ocean is one mile deep in some places. The drawer is one foot deep. 
The silver mine goes one mile deep into the mountain.
<u>Deep</u> is used in measuring penetration. It is also sometimes used to describe a third dimension. Observe:
The drawer is one foot long, 8" wide, and 6" deep. 
<u>Thick</u> is sometimes used to describe the third dimension of a solid article. Observe:
The book is 8 inches long, 10 inches wide, and 2 inches thick. That wall is one foot thick. The new dictionary is very thick.

¹The symbol (') is sometimes used for feet and (") for inches.

Exercise:

Describe the following classroom objects in three dimensions:

1. The blackboard.

2. The desk.

3. The wall.

4. A book.

5. A drawer of the desk.

6. The window.

7. A notebook.

8. An eraser.

9. The closet.

10. The door.

(4) Some of them are more than 100 feet tall.

Observe the following:

The tree is 50 feet tall.
Jack is about 6 feet tall.
That is a tall building.
The blackboard is 3 feet tall.

Tall is used when describing the vertical extension of a person or thing; wide is used for the horizontal extension of things. Observe:

The blackboard is 3 feet tall.
The blackboard is 5 feet wide.

Note that, alternatively, one can describe the same blackboard using long and wide:

The blackboard is 5 feet long.
The blackboard is 3 feet wide.

Here verticality and horizontality are not factors.

Exercise:

- Teacher: How tall are you?

Student A: I am 6 feet tall.

Teacher: How tall is the desk?

Student B: The desk is 3 feet tall.

Teacher: How tall is that building?

Student C: That building is about 300 feet tall.

Continue the exercise: How tall is she? How tall is that table? How tall is your brother? How tall is that dog? How tall am I? How tall is that man? How tall are those doors?

(11) They fly very low, only about 200 feet high.

Observe the following:

- The plane is two miles high.

Those birds are about 30 feet high.

That cloud is three miles high.



The building is 1000 feet high and 50 feet tall.

High indicates that there is a vertical distance between a horizontal surface and a person or thing.

Exercise:

Teacher: How high is the picture on the wall?
Student A: It is about 6 feet high.
Teacher: How high is the lamp?
Student B: It is about 8 feet high.
Teacher: How high is the map on the wall?
Student C: It is about 4 feet high.

Continue the exercise: How high is that cloud? How high is the antenna? How high is the mirror? How high is that airplane? How high is the helicopter? How high is the lamp? How high is the map?

3. English measurements

a) Linear measurement

1 inch (in.)	2.54 centimeters
12 inches = 1 foot (ft.)	30.48 centimeters
3 feet = 1 yard (yd.)	0.9144 meter
1760 yards (5280 feet) = 1 mile	1609.3 meters

b) Weight

1 ounce (oz.)	28.3495 grams
16 ounces = 1 pound (lb.)	453.59 grams
2000 pounds (lbs.) = 1 ton	907.20 kilograms

Note the following examples:

How much does the letter weigh? It weighs one ounce. I can send it for three cents. How much does the book weigh? It weighs about one pound. How much does he weigh? He weighs about 160 pounds.
--

c) Liquid measure

1 pint (pt.)	4732 liter
2 pints (pts.) = 1 quart (qt.)	.9463 liter
4 quarts (qts.) = 1 gallon (gal.)	3.7853 liters

Note the following examples:

A glass of milk contains a half pint of milk.

A quart of milk contains four glasses of milk.

4. Conversation for Memorization

Jack: How tall are you?

James: I am 6 feet tall. How tall are you?

Jack: I am 5 feet 6 inches tall. How much do you weigh?

James: I weigh 170 pounds.

LESSON XXII

VOCABULARY

1. Tomas Looks for a Room.
2. Special Problem: LOOK FOR, LOOK AT, LOOK UP.
3. Special Problem: Two-Word Verbs with UP.
4. Conversation for Memorization.

1. Tomas Looks for a Room

Tomas said to Mrs. Cooper one morning, "You have been very kind to me to permit me to stay with you, but I think that I had better look for a room. The university opens very soon, and I don't want to trouble you any more."

Mrs. Cooper said, "You can stay longer if you like, Tomas, but I know our house is very far from the university. You can get a room near the university very easily. Jack can go with you to help you."

Jack and Tomas looked up the list of rooms for rent in the newspaper. They marked the ones that seemed good and went to look at them the next morning.

The first house that they visited was very small. When they knocked at the door, the landlady showed them a very small room. Tomas and Jack looked at it. Tomas said, "I'm sorry, but this is not exactly what I wanted." He thought, but did not say, "This room is too small. It has an old bed, and only one chair. The room is very dirty. She doesn't clean up the room very often. There is only one window."

The next house was better. The landlady graciously invited Jack and Tomas to inspect several rooms. The first room had a beautiful green rug and a large desk with a study lamp. There was a big closet, and the dresser was clean and covered with a white cloth. Unfortunately he could have that room only until the summer, because there was a regular roomer in the summer. The next room was smaller, but it looked very comfortable. It had an easy chair and a small sofa in addition to the bed. The bathroom was across the hall, and there were both a shower and a bathtub.

Tomas asked, "How much is the rent for this room?"

The landlady answered, "This room rents for \$8.00 a week. This includes a weekly change of linen. You must provide the towels."

Jack told Tomas, "That is a reasonable price. The room is very pleasant, and it is near the campus."

Tomas said, "I'll take it. May I move in next Monday?"

The landlady said, "Surely. Monday is fine."

2. Special Problem: LOOK FOR, LOOK AT, LOOK UP

- (2) ...I think that I had better look for a room.
- (7) Jack and Tomas looked up the list of rooms for rent in the newspaper.
- (7) They marked the ones that seemed good and went to look at them the next morning.

Observe the following:

Jack lost his pen in the theater. He is looking for it now.
Have you seen Louise? I have been looking for her for ten minutes.
What are you doing? I am looking for my hat. I had it a minute ago.

Look for is used in situations like those above where it means "try to find."

Observe the following:

Jack is looking at his newspaper.
Would you like to look at these pictures of Mexico?
The immigration official wanted to look at Tomas' passport.

Look at is used in situations like those above where it means "see."

Observe the following:

Louise looked up some information about Mexico.
Will you look up the telephone number, please?
I looked up the population of New York in the encyclopedia.

Look up usually means "consult a reference or authority" in situations like those above.

Exercise:

Teacher: the meaning of the word
Student A: I looked up the meaning of the word.
Teacher: the painting by Velasquez
Student B: I looked at the painting by Velasquez.
Teacher: the pen I lost.
Student C: I looked for the pen I lost

Continue the exercise. Teacher: Jack's new car, the exhibit in the museum, a book in the library, the name of the president of France, the Spanish word for "table," a new raincoat, the arrival time of the train, a box of matches, the movie.

3. Special Problem: Two-Word Verbs with UP

(13) She doesn't clean up the room very often.

Observe the following:

Jack and Louise ate up the ice cream.
Have you finished up your work?
Please fill up the gasoline tank.
She cleaned up the room.
We used up the paper.

Up used after some Class 2 words indicates "to the final or required point".

Note that these two-word verbs occur in the following grammatical pattern:		
They ate up the ice cream. You finished up the work.	They ate the ice cream up. <u>ou</u> finished the work up.	They ate it up. You finished it up.

Exercise:

Teacher: Are you going to clean your room?
Student A: Yes, I'm going to clean it up.
Teacher: Did you finish your composition?
Student B: Yes, I finished it up.
Teacher: Have you added that column of figures?
Student C: Yes, I have added it up.

Continue the exercise. Teacher: Did you cut the paper? Have you covered the table? Did you fill the blackboard with examples? Are you going to use the chalk? Did the baby drink the milk? Did you clean your room? Did you wind the clock?

(7) Jack and Tomas looked up the list of rooms for rent in the newspaper.

Observe the following:	
John picked up the pencil.	It fell on the floor and he retrieved it.
The class is going to take up question patterns tomorrow.	The class is going to discuss question patterns tomorrow.
An uncle brought Mary up.	When Mary was a child, her parents died and her uncle took the responsibility for her education and well-being.
The bad weather held up the program.	The bad weather caused a short postponement of the program.
Some two-word verbs with <u>UP</u> do not conform to any meaning pattern. They must be learned as individual items.	

Exercise: Use one of the two-word verbs above to form a sentence that can reasonably follow the teacher's example.

Teacher: The chalk was on the floor.
Student A: I picked up the chalk.
Teacher: The plane did not leave because of the weather.
Student B: The weather held up the plane.
Teacher: I lived with my grandmother until I was 18.
Student C: She brought me up.

Continue the exercise. Teacher: The group will discuss Europe tomorrow. Your book is on the floor. The program began very late. He was educated by his uncle. We discussed religion yesterday. The train did not arrive on time. I dropped my notebook. Helen lived with her grandparents for 20 years.

4. Conversation for Memorization

Tomas: How much is the rent for this room?

Landlady: It rents for \$8.00 a week, including a weekly change of linen.

Tomas: I'll take it.

LESSON XXIII

VOCABULARY

1. Tomas Writes a Letter to Central University
2. Special Problem: Two-Word Verbs with OVER
3. Conversation for Memorization

1. Tomas Writes a Letter to Central University

Tomas wanted to study two years at the Riverside City University and then attend another university in order to specialize in Business Administration. He asked Jack to help him write a letter explaining what he wanted. They wrote a first draft and then they wrote it over. When Jack and Tomas finished the letter, this is what they had written:

5

Admissions Office
School of Business Administration
Central University
Central, --- State

1422 Remington St.
Riverside City, -- State
September 14, 19--

10

Gentlemen:

I am interested in applying for admission to the Central University School of Business Administration. At the present time, I am awaiting the opening of the fall semester at Riverside City University. I plan to study there for two years and then I would like to transfer to Central University in order to study Commercial Banking. I would like to know the requirements for admission to Central University in order that I may plan my program at Riverside University. Any information that you can give me will be appreciated.

15

20

Yours very truly,

Tomas Gomez

Tomas Gomez

25

Tomas asked Jack, "Shall I send this letter special delivery?"

Jack said, "No, I don't think it is necessary. It will probably arrive tomorrow or the next day by first-class mail. Special delivery letters go by special messenger only after they reach their destination city. If you send it air mail, it will certainly arrive tomorrow."

30

Tomas said, "Do you think I should register the letter?"

Jack said, "No, I don't think so. The letter doesn't contain anything that cannot be replaced if it is lost. If you are going to send your academic record, you might register the letter."

35 Tomas put the letter in an envelope and went to the post office to mail it. Jack went with him. He said, "I am going to mail a package to my aunt and uncle in Springfield. I don't know how much it weighs, so I don't know how much it is going to cost to send it parcel post to Springfield."

2. Special Problem: Two-Word Verbs with OVER

(4) They wrote a first draft and then they wrote it over.

a) Observe the following:

The boys wrote a letter. They were not satisfied so they wrote it over.
I like that record. Please play it over.
We sang the song once and then we sang it over and over.
Louise did her homework. It was not correct so the teacher asked her to do it over.

Over with some Class 2 words like write, sing, do, play describes a repetition in suitable contexts.

Note that these two-word verbs are NOT like <u>call up</u> , etc.		
He called the girls up.	He called up the girls.	He called them up.
He wrote the letter over.	- - - - -	He wrote it over.
He played the record over.	- - - - -	We played it over.

Exercise:

Teacher: They wrote the homework again.
Student A: They wrote the homework over.
Student B: They wrote it over.
Teacher: They sang the song again.
Student C: They sang the song over.
Student D: They sang it over.
Teacher: She did the homework twice.
Student E: She did the homework over.
Student F: She did it over.

Continue the exercise. Teacher: They played the record again. They rewrote the letter. We did the typing again. I typed the letter twice, etc.

b) Observe the following:

He went over the composition. He read it carefully.
The doctor went over Tomas. He examined Tomas.
The mechanic went over the car carefully.
I went to the dentist. He went over my teeth.

Go over in these circumstances means "examine", "inspect."

Note that this two-word verb is NOT like <u>call up</u> or <u>write over</u>			
He called the girls up.	He called up the girls.	He called them up.	
He wrote the lesson over.		He wrote it over.	
	The doctor went over Jack.		He went over him.

In this connection observe the following:			
He went over the composition.		"examine"	
He looked over the composition.		"examine visually"	
He thought over the composition.		"examine mentally"	
They talked over the composition.		"examine orally"	
<u>Look over</u> , <u>think over</u> , and <u>talk over</u> follow the pattern of <u>call up</u> .			
He called the girls up.	He called up the girls.	He called them up.	
looked They thought the composition over. talked		looked They thought over the composition. talked	
looked They thought it over. talked			

Exercise:

Teacher: He examined the list of rooms.
Student A: He went over the list of rooms.
Student B: He went over it.
Teacher: He examined the car visually.
Student C: He looked over the car.
Student D: He looked the car over.
Student E: He looked it over.

Continue the exercise. Teacher: He examined the trip mentally. They examined the plan orally, etc.

3. Conversation for Memorization

Jack: Did you look over the business administration catalog?
Tomas: Yes. I went over it very carefully. Then I sent an application to the university.
Jack: Did you send it special delivery?
Tomas: No. Just air mail

LESSON XXIV

VOCABULARY

1. Louise Explains the System of Education in the United States
2. Special Problem: Two-word Verbs with ON
3. Topics for Discussion

1. Louise Explains the System of Education in the United States

Tomas asked Louise to explain some of the characteristics of the system of education in the United States. He said, "What do you think is the most important characteristic of American education?"

5 Louise answered, "That's a difficult question. I think I would say that the fact that the public educational system is controlled by the local community is very important."

Tomas asked, "How does the local community control education?"

10 Louise went on, "Let's use Riverside City as an example. Here the school system is operated by a board of education of nine members. They are elected by the eligible voters of Springfield. Mr. Towns, who owns the drugstore, is a member of our Board of Education. Dr. Johnson, the doctor who treated your cold, is, also."

Tomas asked, "Are they all specialists in education? How can a druggist operate a school system?"

15 Louise answered, "No. The Board of Education selects a professional educator as Superintendent of Schools. He is actually the administrator of the school system."

Tomas asked, "Does every community have the same system?"

20 Louise said, "No. They differ considerably. Each community has its own way of operating. Another thing that is very important is the compulsory nature of education. Although the laws differ from state to state, the compulsory nature of education is nation-wide."

25 "Perhaps I should explain the organization of the public schools. The elementary school usually has eight academic grades. The children study the fundamentals of reading, writing, geography, history, science, and mathematics, and prepare themselves for the secondary schools. The secondary school, or high school, usually consists of four grades which prepare the students either for practical jobs or for college. At the end of these four years, when they are seventeen or eighteen, they receive a high school diploma. A high school diploma (with certain qualifications) is the usual requisite for entrance to college. At the end of four years of college, the student is granted the bachelor's degree (A.B., B.S.). He may then choose to go on in a professional school for a master's degree (M.A., M.S.) and a doctor's degree (Ph.D., Sc.D., D.D.S., M.D.) or may choose to leave school and seek employment."

35 Tomas said, "Thank you very much for explaining this. It will help me to know these things when I see my adviser next week."

Louise said, "You're very welcome."

2. Special Problem: Two-Word Verbs with ON

- (8) Louise went on, "Let's use Springfield as an example."
- (32) He may then choose to go on in a professional school for a master's degree.

a) Observe the following:

When Louise came home, Jack stayed on in Riverside City.
The group enjoyed the songs. They sang on and on.
Tomas likes to walk. One day he walked on until he arrived at the city limit.
Louise likes to read. Last night she read on until 2 a. m.

Note that on carries a meaning of continuation in the examples above. Note that no word separates on from the Class 2 word preceding it.

Exercise:

Teacher: The president spoke for a long time.

Student A: The president spoke on for a long time.

Teacher: He slept until noon.

Student B: He slept on until noon.

Teacher: The boys played for three hours.

Student C: The boys played on for three hours.

Continue the exercise. Teacher: Columbus sailed for many weeks. We drove as far as Chicago. The plane flew all night. Louise stayed in Riverside City. Jack worked until 1 a.m. They argued for many hours. We conversed all afternoon.

b) Observe the following:

The television is on.	The television is off.
Please turn the radio on.	Please turn the radio off.
Put the light on.	Put the light off.

On in these examples indicates that the device mentioned is placed in operation. Off indicates the contrary.

Exercise:

Teacher: the television

Student A: Please turn the television on.

Student B: Please turn it off.

Teacher: the lamp.

Student C: Please turn the lamp on.

Student D: Please turn it off.

Continue the exercise. Teacher: the phonograph, the radio, the stove, the motor, the lights, the amplifier, the projector, the switch.

3. Topics for Discussion

- Where does ultimate control of the educational system in your country lie?
- What types of professional schools do you have in your country? How long a period of schooling is required for the medical profession, the legal profession, etc.?
- What subjects are studied in the secondary schools in your country?
- At what age does compulsory education terminate for the student in your country?

LESSON XXV

VOCABULARY

1. Tomas Visits His Adviser
2. Special Problem: Combinations with SOME, ANY, NO, EVERY

1. Tomas Visits His Adviser

Tomas had received a post card asking him to report to his adviser, Professor Jones, in order to plan his first semester at the university. When Tomas arrived at Professor Jones' office, he found that there were three other students also waiting to see Professor Jones. He went to the secretary and said, "My name is
5 Tomas Gomez. I have a post card asking me to see Professor Jones."

The secretary smiled and said, "Professor Jones is busy now, and there are three other students waiting. Would you like to sit down? It will be about fifteen minutes."

Tomas said, "Thank you, I'll wait." And he sat down.

10 About twenty-minutes later, the secretary said, "Professor Jones will see you now."

Tomas walked into the office. Professor Jones greeted him cordially and asked him to sit down.

15 He said, "You are entering as a freshman. Usually the freshman year, and the second, or sophomore year, are devoted to general studies in five different groups. You must accumulate credits in each of these groups before you will be permitted to concentrate in your chosen field. The groups are English, mathematics or philosophy, humanities, social sciences, and natural sciences. You must take English composition. That is three hours credit. The humanities offer
20 a choice. You must take a language, but you may choose among literature, fine arts, and music. It is not necessary to make a choice until the second semester.

"You are going to enter business administration, aren't you?"

Tomas answered that he was.

25 Professor Jones continued, "Then I believe you should choose mathematics in preference to philosophy--it will be more useful to you in your field. Do you prefer anthropology, economics, political science, geography, or history for your social science requirement?"

Tomas said, "I believe I must have economics before I enter business administration."

30 Professor Jones said, "All right. What language do you want to study--French, German, Spanish, or Italian?"

Tomas said, "I think I want to learn French."

Professor Jones said, "Good. And what natural science would you like--zoology, botany, psychology, physics, or astronomy?"

Tomas said, "I have always been interested in Psychology. I'd like to take that course."

Professor Jones said, "Fine. Then your first semester program will be Eng- list 1, three credits; French 1, four credits; Psychology 31, four credits; and Economics 11, four credits. That is a total of fifteen credit hours. It is a full schedule. If you take fifteen credit hours each semester, you will graduate in four years. If you will fill out your election card, I will sign it and you can arrange your class schedule by consulting your bulletin."

Tomas filled out his election card, and Professor Jones signed it.

Professor Jones stood up and shook hands with Tomas. He said, "If you have any difficulties or need help, please feel free to come to see me any time."

Tomas said, "Thank you very much. Goodbye."

35

40

45

2. Special Problem: Combinations with SOME, ANY, NO, EVERY

(45) please feel free to come to see me ANY TIME.

a) Observe the following:

You may visit me on Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday, Thursday, or Friday. You may come in the morning or afternoon. An appointment is not necessary. You may come ANY TIME.
John can study in the library. He can study in a noisy room or a quiet room. I think that he could study at a football game. He can study ANYWHERE.
The teacher said, "The students may type their compositions. They are permitted to write them in pencil or pen. They may use small pieces of paper or large pieces of paper. They may prepare their compositions ANY WAY.
ANYWHERE, ANY WAY, ANY TIME are used in situations where no particular place, method, or time is emphasized.

Exercise:

Teacher: Can you study in the library?

Student A: I can study anywhere.

Teacher: Can you study in the evening?

Student B: I can study any time.

Teacher: Can you travel by train?

Student C: I can travel any way.

Continue the exercise: Can you travel by bus? Can you go to Chicago? Is five o'clock or six o'clock a better time for you to go? Where can you meet me? When can you meet me? Can you travel by plane to Bogota? Can you leave now?

Observe the following:

Jack was in this room five minutes ago. I know that he is in this building. I don't know exactly where he is, but he is SOMEWHERE in this building.
Louise was in this room five minutes ago. I know that she left the building. She is NOWHERE in the building. She is not anywhere in the building.
There are blackboards in all the rooms of the school. There are some blackboards in the corridors. There are blackboards EVERYWHERE.

I want to visit you in your country. I don't know when I will be there, but I want to go there SOMETIME.

SOMEWHERE describes an uncertain place.
NOWHERE means "in no place," "not anywhere."
EVERYWHERE means "in all places."
SOMETIME means "an uncertain time."

Exercise:

Teacher: The president is in this city. I don't know exactly where.
Student A: The president is SOMEWHERE in this city.
Teacher: There is air in all places in the world.
Student B: There is air EVERYWHERE in the world.
Teacher: John is not in this city.
Student C: John is NOWHERE in this city.

Continue the exercise: Teacher: I am going to visit you during the next year. I don't see Louise. There are no tigers in Africa. There are birds on the oceans and on every continent. I'll meet you today or tomorrow. There are orchids in all parts of South America. Henry is in the post office, but I don't know exactly where.

Observe the following:

Canasta is an easy game. ANYBODY can learn to play. He is a good pianist. He can play ANYTHING.
SOMEBODY wants to talk to you. I don't know his name. There is SOMETHING in that box. I don't know what it is.
The entire class is present today. EVERYBODY is here. He is an expert engineer. He knows EVERYTHING about mechanical engineering.
The entire class is present today. NOBODY is absent. He has not studied economics. He knows NOTHING [nəθŋ] about economics.
ANYBODY is used in situations where no particular person is emphasized. ANYTHING is used in situations where no particular thing is emphasized. SOMEBODY is used in situations where a certain unspecified person is emphasized. SOMETHING is used in situations where a certain unspecified thing is emphasized. NOTHING is used in the same situations as NOT ANYTHING. <u>He doesn't know anything about economics is the same as He knows nothing about economics.</u> NOBODY is used in the same situations as NOT ANYBODY. <u>He doesn't know anybody is the same as He knows nobody.</u>

Exercise: Use ANYBODY, ANYTHING, SOMEBODY, SOMETHING, EVERYBODY, EVERYTHING, NOBODY, NOTHING in the following conversations.

- 1. A. Did you find John or Mary in the railroad station?
B. No. I went to the railroad station, but I saw _____.
- 2. A. Did you find your pen in the classroom?
B. No. I went in the classroom, but I saw _____.

3. A. Did you find John or Mary in the railroad station?
B. No. I went to the railroad station, but I didn't see _____.
4. A. Did you find your pen in the classroom?
B. No. I went in the classroom, but I didn't see _____.
5. A. Who is at the door?
B. I don't know. Are you expecting _____?
6. A. What is that noise?
B. I don't know. Did you hear _____?
7. A. Is the entire class here?
B. Yes, _____ is here.
8. A. Do you have all your pencils and notebooks?
B. Yes, we have _____.
9. A. He used to have a lot of money.
B. Yes, but he has _____ now.
10. A. Did you answer the telephone?
B. Yes, but _____ was on the line.

4. Conversation for Memorization

- Tomas: How much is the rent for this room?
Landlady: It rents for \$8.00 a week, including a weekly change of linen.
Tomas: I'll take it.

LESSON XXVI

VOCABULARY

I. An Art Museum

HARRY: It's 4:30 now, SO we don't have much time. BESIDES, we have to be back at the hotel by 6. Where'll we go FIRST?

JEAN: According to this plan of the building, Italian painting is in the FIRST gallery. SECOND, we find Dutch and Flemish pictures, and NEXT the French Impressionists. American painting is just ahead of us.

HARRY: Yes, look. HERE are some of the early Americans. The figures look stiff, don't they? There's a guide talking to a group; let's hear what he says.

THE GUIDE: HERE are some of the Nineteenth Century painters. You can see that their technique has improved. NEVERTHELESS much of their work is imitative—it's the same thing French painters were doing at that period. MOREOVER they are still interested in telling stories in pictures. Look at the detail in the background of this one: a castle and some old ruins. And, FINALLY, they are still using the traditional colors: lots of browns and blacks. IN SHORT, it was not until the Impressionists (whose pictures you can see FARTHER AHEAD of us) that we find a new method of painting.

HARRY: Here are the Impressionists he's talking about. Do you like 'em? If that's a picture I'm Christopher Columbus. My three-year old boy can paint better than that.

JEAN: You just don't know anything about 'em. Look how bright and colorful they are. You can tell that these painters were interested in color—and in light and air. Look at the effect of the shadows on the grass.

HARRY: Yes, but look at that man. He looks like a pencil.

JEAN: He's just sketched in. The painter wasn't trying to make him look real; the painter wanted you to feel how bright and airy and colorful the scene was.

HARRY: I still don't like it.

JEAN: You're hopeless. Here are some of the Regionalists. Each of the painters has tried to capture the atmosphere of his own region: the New England seacoast, a farm in the Middle West, or a ranch in the West. We have to go up here to get to the various schools of the twenties and thirties, and to abstract art. Do we have time?

HARRY: I don't think so. They're already closing the windows. BESIDES, I've had enough.

JEAN: BY THE WAY, look at this picture. I think the canvas is torn. It's come away from the frame, and some of the oil is flaking off. AS A RESULT you can see some of the brushstrokes beneath the top coating.

EXERCISE 26.1a. Observe the following:

1. It's 4:30 now, SO we don't have much time left.
 THEREFORE
 CONSEQUENTLY
 THUS
 AS A RESULT

All these words mean approximately the same thing, in this sentence. SO is the form most commonly used in the spoken language. The other forms will often be heard, but they will most often be met in the written language.

2. They're already closing the windows. BESIDES
 MOREOVER
 FURTHERMORE
 ALSO

I've had enough.

MOREOVER and FURTHERMORE are most often met in the written language.

3. You can see that their technique has improved.
 NEVERTHELESS much of their work is imitative.
 YET
 HOWEVER
 STILL
 BUT
 ON THE OTHER HAND
 IN SPITE OF THAT

YET, STILL and BUT are the most often used in spoken language.

EXERCISE 26.1b (to make use of sequence indicators SO, BESIDES, YET, STILL and BUT).

- TEACHER: I wanted to go to the concert. I knew I shouldn't.
 STUDENT: I wanted to go to the concert; yet I knew I shouldn't.
 TEACHER: I like bright pictures. I like the Impressionists.
 STUDENT: I like bright pictures, so I like the Impressionists.

Continue:

1. I don't like this picture, for the colors are dark. The figures are stiff.
2. This picture is dark and gloomy. It is not unpleasant.
3. I'm from New England. I like pictures of the seacoast.
4. I don't know anything about painting. I should go to an art museum.
5. I don't want to buy this picture because it's torn. It's too big for the wall in my living room.
6. I'm from New England. I don't like pictures of the seacoast.
7. He knows a lot about art because he has several paintings of his own. He teaches art at the university.
8. He knows a lot about art. We should ask him about this picture.
9. He liked the paintings of the Regionalists. He never bought any.
10. He liked the paintings of the Regionalists. He bought several of them.
11. He liked the paintings of the Regionalists. He painted much like the Regionalists himself.
12. It was time for the museum to close. We left.

EXERCISE 26.1c (to familiarize the student with the sequence indicators listed below).

TEACHER: I didn't say you were wrong. (On the contrary)

STUDENT: I didn't say you were wrong. On the contrary, I said you were right.

TEACHER: I like this painting. (Still)

STUDENT: I like this painting; still I don't have enough money to buy it.

Continue the exercise with the following: Henry is tall, dark, and handsome.

- | | |
|----------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. therefore | 11. as a result |
| 2. nevertheless | 12. in contrast |
| 3. on the other hand | 13. as a matter of fact |
| 4. in addition | 14. consequently |
| 5. likewise | 15. similarly |
| 6. in spite of that | 16. in fact |
| 7. conversely | 17. besides |
| 8. indeed | 18. however |
| 9. furthermore | 19. yet |
| 10. also | |

EXERCISE 26.1d. Observe the following:

1. Italian painting is just inside the door. FARTHER ON are Dutch pictures, and THEN come the French Impressionists.
2. Harry and Jean looked at early American painting FIRST. THEN they looked at pictures from the 19th Century. NEXT they looked at the Impressionists, and FINALLY at the Regionalists.

Make sentences tying together various elements with the sequence indicators. For example:

TEACHER: the hotel	so
Main street	besides
First street	yet
the park	still
the library	but

STUDENT: We left the hotel. Then we crossed Main street. Next we came to First street. After that we walked through the park, and at last we entered the library.

Continue the exercise with the following:

- | | |
|------------------------|----------------------|
| 1. Detroit | 2. the Pacific Ocean |
| Ann Arbor | Hawaii |
| a number of farms | San Francisco |
| the Huron river | the Rocky Mountains |
| Dexter-Huron park | Chicago |
| 3. left the house | 4. took a bath |
| caught the bus | got dressed |
| went to the city | caught a cab |
| arrived at the office. | went to the concert |

- | | |
|---|---|
| 5. The Rackham Building
the Women's League
the flagpole
the library | 6. gathered up the books
put on a coat
took a raincoat
left the building |
| 7. the Atlantic ocean
a French port
Paris
a hotel near the Seine | 8. ate lunch
talked to friends
went upstairs
took a nap |
| 9. southern Michigan
northern Indiana
South Chicago
the railroad station near the Loop | 10. get in the car
drove out the driveway
turned into the street
had a flat tire |
| 11. took a taxi
picked up a friend
drove to the theater
I had forgotten my billfold | |

EXERCISE 26.1e. The teacher will bring to class a picture for each student (the pictures don't need to be great art; colored magazine advertisements will do). To encourage the use of the terms used in this lesson various exercises are possible:

- a. Student A, seated, describes his picture to Student B, at the blackboard. Student B tries to duplicate Student A's picture as it is described. The exercise may be repeated with Students C and D, etc.
- b. Each student describes his picture to the class, while the others try to draw it on a scratch sheet of paper.
- c. The teacher shows the class two of the pictures at a time. The students describe or contrast the pictures, and give reasons for preferring one to the other.

(Should the teacher forget to bring the pictures, he can have each student describe from memory some well-known painting, statue or building: the MONA LISA; the Parthenon; a picture by Rafael, Rembrandt or El Greco; a statue by Michelangelo or Rodin; a Japanese print; the Taj Mahal; a famous cathedral, etc.)

EXERCISE 26.1f. For a brief account of the development of American art, the student may read the appropriate sections of Art Through the Ages by Helen Gardner (Harcourt Brace, 1948).

LESSON XXVII

VOCABULARY

- A. The Geography of the United States.
- B. Special Problems: THIRD, BROKEN BY, JOINS IT, TAKES IN, COVERS.
- C. Table of States and Capitals with Population Figures.

A. The Geography of the United States.

The United States of America is located on the North American continent between 30 and 50 degrees north latitude. It extends about 2500 miles from east to west and about 1200 miles from north to south.

5 The western third of the nation consists mainly of a high plateau broken by numerous mountain ranges, the chief of which are the Rocky Mountains, located near the western edge of the high ground. To the west of this region lie the Great Plains, This is a region of very flat ground extending from the Canadian border to the Gulf of Mexico, and eastward as far as the Appalachian Mountains. The Appalachians are a range of low mountains and hills running parallel to the Atlantic Coast and about 10 one to two hundred miles inland.

Along the center of the Great Plains, flowing south from the Canadian border to the Gulf of Mexico is the Mississippi River. This river, together with the Missouri which joins it from the west and the Ohio which joins it from the east, forms the central river system of the United States. In the north are the five Great Lakes— 15 Superior, Huron, Michigan, Erie and Ontario which empty into the Atlantic Ocean through the St. Lawrence River. The Colorado River in the southwest and the Colombia in the northwest are the other principal rivers of the country.

The climate of the country is similar to other large continental areas in the temperate zone. It is very warm in the summer and all of it except the south is cold 20 in the winter. The west, and especially the southwest, is very dry and some areas are desert.

The country is divided into four time zones. The eastern zone includes the coast and the Appalachian Mountains. The central zone covers the plains area. The mountain zone takes in most of the mountainous area and the Pacific zone covers the 25 Pacific coast.

	New York	Chicago	Denver	Los Angeles
Time: Eastern Standard		Central Standard	Mountain	Pacific Coast
Time:	12:00	11:00	10:00	9:00

30 The United States is divided into 48 states and the District of Columbia. For convenience these states are often grouped into regions. The regions are quite informal groupings and people often differ in their use of regional names. The following ones are perhaps as common as any: (1) New England, (2) Middle Atlantic Region, (3) the South, (4) the Midwest, and (5) the West. (See table on sheet XXVII-5)

35 Washington, D.C. is not located in any state but lies between Maryland and Virginia. The United States also has a number of overseas possessions, the most important of which are the Territories of Hawaii and Alaska. Others are the Canal Zone, Puerto Rico, the Virgin Islands, and an undetermined number of Pacific Islands.

40 The principal cities of the U.S. are New York, Chicago, Philadelphia, Detroit, Los Angeles and Cleveland. The population of the United States is not evenly spread

over the country, but is concentrated largely in the East. The area west of the Mississippi Valley, because of the mountains and desert, is very sparsely settled, with the exception of the large cities on the west coast.

45 It will be noted that with the exception of Boston, all of the state capitals and the national capital are in small cities. The reason given for this is that it was feared that if the capitals were in large cities they would be too much under the influence of big city politics and the rural areas would be at a disadvantage.

50 In speaking of the population of the U.S. it is well to say something about the national origins of the people. Few Americans of long standing are descendants of one national stock. The great majority of them have ancestors who came from at least two or three different countries, and often from five or six or more. Nevertheless, many sections of the country have a large proportion of the people whose ancestors were from limited geographical areas. New England was first settled by the British and the people there are still largely of English extraction. The south
55 has a high proportion of Negroes and the southwest has many Mexicans and Indians. Less well-known groups are the Germans in Pennsylvania and the Scandinavians in Minnesota and the neighboring states. Except for the south, however, the rural communities of the U.S. are largely of northwestern European extraction. These people came to this country during the early part of its history.

60 In the last hundred years there has been more immigration from eastern and southern Europe and from Asia. These later immigrants have tended to congregate in the cities. There they form small national communities and preserve their native languages and customs for a very long time. Thus Detroit has a separate city within its boundaries, Hamtramck, which is almost entirely Polish. Los Angeles has
65 more Mexicans than any city in Mexico except the capital. New York is the largest city in the world for many nationalities. In these areas many foreign-language newspapers are published and some radio stations devote most of their time to foreign language broadcasts.

70 The heart of American agriculture is the "corn-belt," a belt of very fertile land extending from Nebraska eastwards as far as Pennsylvania. In this area the principal crop is corn. This is fed to animals which are then butchered and shipped all over the world. West of the corn-belt is the wheat-belt extending north and south from Texas to North Dakota and into Canada.

75 The principal products of the south are cotton and tobacco although much corn is also grown there. The agriculture of California, because of its favorable climate, is confined largely to special crops that cannot be produced readily in other parts of the country. The citrus crops and grapes, with their various products, are the chief of these.

80 The mineral deposits of the U.S. are concentrated largely among the Appalachian Mountains, especially in Pennsylvania and the surrounding areas. There are, however, important oil-fields in Texas, Oklahoma and California, and important iron mines in Minnesota. Because of the overwhelming concentration of minerals in the northeastern part of the U.S. manufacturing is also concentrated there. Iron has to be brought mostly from Minnesota, but the Great Lakes provide cheap transportation.
85 In manufacturing, New York is by far the most important state. Pennsylvania, Illinois, Ohio, and Michigan also rank high in manufacturing.

B. Special Problems:

4. The western THIRD of the nation is a high plateau
4. ... a high plateau BROKEN BY numerous mountain ranges,
12. This river, together with the Missouri which JOINS IT from the west
24. The mountain zone TAKES IN most of the mountainous area ...

- (4) The western **THIRD** of the nation is a high plateau

Observe the Class 1 words expressing portion or part:

The upper part of the river is not very large.
The northern half of the globe is called the Northern Hemisphere.
The Upper thirty percent of high school graduates are eligible to enter the university.
One-third of the nation is ill-housed.
One-fourth of the students were absent on that day.
Three-fourths of the class will attend.
The top half of the section is very good.
The best part of the program is yet to come.

Continue the exercise. Teacher: the class, the population, the time, the women, the cars.

Exercise:

Teacher: the students.
Student A: three-fourths of the students are from Colombia.
Teacher: the books
Student B: most of the books are in good condition.
Teacher: his face
Student C: half of his face was covered.

Continue the exercise. Teacher: the building, the students, the citizens, the army, the earth's surface.

- (4) ... a high plateau **BROKEN BY** numerous mountain ranges,

Observe the following:

His speech was broken by applause.
His speech was interrupted by applause.
His education was broken by a period of military service.

Exercise:

Teacher: The meeting.
Student A: The meeting was interrupted by an altercation.
Teacher: The concert.
Student B: The concert was broken by three intermissions.
Teacher: The period of instruction
Student C: The period of instruction was broken by

Continue the exercise: Teacher: The lecture, the class, the movie, the meal, the talk, the conversation.

- (12) This river, together with the Missouri which **JOINS IT** from the west ...

Observe these uses of join, which are similar, but not identical, in meaning.

I joined him after class for coffee.
The thumb joins the hand at the side.
Let's join the rest of the students downstairs.
I have to study now, but I'll join you later.

Exercise:

Teacher: John.
Student A: John joined me for a cup of coffee.
Teacher: Highway 16:
Student B: High 16 joins the express highway beyond the bridge.
Teacher: My friend.
Student C: My friend joined me at the Union after class.

Continue the exercise. Teacher: the teachers, the students, the Pan-American Highway, the Yellow River.

(24) The mountain zone TAKES IN most of the mountainous area ...

Observe that takes in is used in the meaning of "include."

The mountain zone includes most of that area.
The property takes in the land between the road and the brook.
The west takes in some sparsely populated states.
His field of study takes in several branches of chemistry.

Exercise:

Teacher: Medicine:
Student A: Medicine takes in many fields of specialization as various as surgery, pediatrics, and gastroenterology.
Teacher: Physical science,
Student B: The field of physical science takes in such studies as physics, chemistry, astronomy and geology.
Teacher: Central America:
Student C: Central America takes in Guatemala, Honduras, El Salvador, Nicaragua, Costa Rica, and Panama.

Continue the exercise. Teacher: Mathematics, courses in the E.L.I., the study of any language, the study of geography.

C. Table of States and Capitals with Population Figures:

(1950 Census) STATES	Abb.	POPULATION	CAPITAL	POPULATION
New England				
Maine	Me.	913,774	Augusta	20,913
New Hampshire	N. H.	533,242	Concord	27,988
Vermont	Vt.	377,747	Montpelier	8,599
Massachusetts	Mass.	4,690,514	Boston	801,444
Connecticut	Conn.	2,007,280	Hartford	177,397
Rhode Island	R. I.	791,896	Providence	248,674
Middle Atlantic States				
New York	N. Y.	14,830,192	Albany	134,995
New Jersey	N. J.	4,835,329	Trenton	128,009
Pennsylvania	Pa.	10,498,012	Harrisburg	89,544
Delaware	Del.	318,085	Dover	6,223
Maryland	Md.	2,343,001	Annapolis	10,047
District of C.	D. C.	802,178		

C. Table of States and Capitals with Population Figures (Continued):

(1950 Census) STATES	Abb.	POPULATION	CAPITAL	POPULATION
<u>South</u>				
Virginia	Va.	3,318,680	Richmond	230,310
West Virginia	W. Va.	2,005,552	Charleston	73,501
North Carolina	N. C.	4,061,929	Raleigh	65,679
South Carolina	S. C.	2,117,027	Columbia	86,914
Georgia	Ga.	3,444,578	Atlanta	331,314
Florida	Fla.	2,771,305	Tallahassee	27,237
Tennessee	Tenn.	3,291,718	Nashville	174,307
Alabama	Ala.	3,061,743	Montgomery	106,525
Mississippi	Miss.	2,178,914	Jackson	98,271
Louisiana	La.	2,683,516	Baton Rouge	125,629
Arkansas	Ark.	1,909,511	Little Rock	102,213
Oklahoma	Okla.	2,233,351	Oklahoma City	243,504
Texas	Tex.	7,711,194	Austin	132,459
<u>Mid-West</u>				
Ohio	O.	7,946,627	Columbus	375,901
Michigan	Mich.	6,371,766	Lansing	92,129
Kentucky	Ky.	2,944,806	Frankfort	11,916
Indiana	Ind.	3,934,224	Indianapolis	427,173
Illinois	Ill.	8,712,176	Springfield	81,628
Iowa	Io.	2,621,073	Des Moines	177,965
Wisconsin	Wis.	3,434,575	Madison	169,357
Minnesota	Minn.	2,982,483	St. Paul	311,349
North Dakota	N. D.	619,636	Bismarck	18,640
South Dakota	S. D.	652,740	Pierre	5,715
Nebraska	Neb.	1,325,510	Lincoln	98,884
Kansas	Kan.	1,905,299	Topeka	78,791
Missouri	Mo.	3,954,653	Jefferson City	25,099
<u>West</u>				
Washington	Wash.	2,378,963	Olympia	15,819
Oregon	Or.	1,521,341	Salem	43,140
California	Cal.	10,586,223	Sacramento	137,572
Idaho	Ida.	588,637	Boise	34,393
Nevada	Nev.	160,083	Carson City	3,082
Montana	Mont.	591,024	Helena	17,581
Wyoming	Wy.	290,529	Cheyenne	31,935
Utah	Ut.	688,862	Salt Lake City	182,121
Arizona	Ariz.	749,587	Phoenix	106,818
Colorado	Col.	1,325,089	Denver	415,786
New Mexico	N. M.	681,187	Santa Fe	27,998

LESSON XXVIII

VOCABULARY

Regionalism

Jane and Harry have just attended a reception given for the foreign students on campus. Now, over a coke, they are discussing the people they met and the things they learned:

JANE: You know, I enjoyed the president's reception for the international students very much. I had been looking forward to meeting them all summer. The students I met had a great deal to talk about, and their English was remarkable.

HARRY: Yes, I agree. Their English was surprisingly good, although there were times when they had difficulty understanding some of us. However, I don't think the misunderstandings were always due to language.

JANE: What do you mean?

HARRY: Well, I have in mind, for example, this business of regionalism. You remember Tomás, don't you? We saw him talking to Professor Smith about his future plans. He's going to study in Boston in the fall. When we began to joke with Tomás about Boston and warned him that he might become a New Englander, he seemed puzzled: I'm sure he had no idea what we were talking about.

JANE: No, of course, he wouldn't know about how we characterize the people from New England. Sometimes I don't approve of the way we generalize about the people from a particular region. Generalizations can be dangerous and misleading, and I'm sure most New Englanders are not very much different from Californians or Mid-Westerners. Yet the fact is that we do generalize. And it's important for the foreigner to know something about the geographical divisions of our country and the characteristics we attribute to people who come from those areas.

HARRY: As much as we generalize, it isn't easy to summarize in a few words just what we think the characteristics of a New Englander are. He's reserved, of course, and devoted to duty. He's conservative and strict and conscientious. All these traits may be part of his Puritan heritage, for the Pilgrim fathers lived by the Bible, feared a stern God, and considered pleasure an instrument of Satan. Bostonians are certainly proud of their heritage.

JANE: Don't forget their accents! You know how they drop their "r" and pronounce their "a" like British English in words like "path" and "laugh." The accent always sounds to me academic and a little affected.

HARRY: I have the same reaction. But the Southern accent affects me quite differently. It's similar to the New England accent in the way it drops the "r's," for example. But the rhythm is different: it's slower and more musical.

JANE: The Southerner differs from the New Englander not only in accent. His heritage is not from the Puritans but from the Cavaliers. The New Englander emphasizes work; the Southerner emphasizes leisure and gentlemanly sports like fox-hunting and horse-racing. He likes elaborate parties and dances and carnivals like the Mardi Gras in New Orleans. For the New Englander life is a duty; for the Southerner it is an art. I like to think of

the easy-going life on the cotton and tobacco plantations, of the charming hospitality, the Southern fried chicken and the mint juleps and the songs in the evening by the moonlight.

HARRY: You've been seeing too many Hollywood movies. However, we do have romantic notions about the Southerner and his way of life.

JANE: So far we've avoided describing our own region. It's more difficult to characterize yourself, to see yourself as others see you. But I think we know fairly well what people from other parts of the country think of us. The Middle West is the heart of the U.S. It's a large region, including all the states which are part of the Mississippi River basin. Most of the country is flat and is used for farming and grazing. Yet there are thriving industrial areas around cities like Chicago and St. Louis and Minneapolis. Generally, the Middle-Westerner is thought of as provincial—very much absorbed in his work and his family. His life is centered around the home; family picnics and dinners are among his favorite recreations.

HARRY: Sounds a little dull, doesn't it? I'm sure our life is more exciting and varied than that. We are provincial if we compare our life to that of the New Yorker.

JANE: Yes, we always think of the big cities on the east coast, especially New York, as the centers of cultural life. New York, Philadelphia, and Washington are all centers of strenuous political, financial and industrial activity. I'm always impressed with the size of New York, with the tall buildings, the heavy traffic, the fast pace. And, even though I know it isn't true, I always think of the New Yorker as being more sophisticated than the Middle-Westerner. The movies have a lot to do with this attitude: so often they exaggerate the sensational side of big city living.

HARRY: Another interesting area of the country is the "Great West"—the region with the Rocky Mountains from Montana to Arizona. There are a lot of wide-open spaces and there aren't many people. The scenery is wonderful: last year our family traveled out west for a vacation and we saw Yellowstone Park, Zion Park and the Grand Canyon. Dad and I particularly enjoyed the hunting and fishing.

JANE: Did you get to California?

HARRY: Yes, we did. We even saw Hollywood. California is a subject which would take hours. It's growing so fast and changing so fast that it's hard to characterize. Everything there seems modern and less formal. You see more sport shirts and slacks; people rarely dress up except in the cities like San Francisco. Even there you can see people in restaurants and theaters dressed casually.

JANE: I'd like to see it myself. In fact, I'd like to see much more of my own country. It's so varied in geography and climate and so large that we can never know enough about it. I can easily see why the foreign student might be confused when we refer to New Yorkers or New Englanders, and I can see that he should be told something about some of our regions and the people that come from them.

A. Areas of the world and their people:

1) Africa	African	Guatemala	Guatemalan
America	American	India	Indian
Asia	Asian	Indonesia	Indonesian
Australia	Australian	Nebraska	Nebraskan
Bolivia	Bolivian	Nicaragua	Nicaraguan
California	Californian	Philadelphia	Philadelphian
Colombia	Colombian	Russia	Russian
Costa Rica	Costa Rican	Venezuela	Venezuelan
Cuba	Cuban	Virginia	Virginian

- 2) Many regions ending in a vowel other than -a add -an.

Chicago	Chicagoan	Missouri	Missourian
Chile	Chilean	Paraguay	Paraguayan
Haiti	Haitian	San Francisco	San Franciscan
Kansas City	Kansas Citian	Uruguay	Uruguayan

- 3) Some regions add -ian (with a shift of stress and sometimes a change in pronunciation).

Báltimore	Baltimórian	Cánada	Canáidian
Bóston	Bostónian	Ecuador	Ecuadorian
Brazíl	Brazílian	Paris	Parisian

- 4) Many places, especially cities, add -er.

Berlín	Berliner	New York	New Yorker (city or state)
Detroit	Detroiter		
Dúblin	Dubliner	Rhode Ísland	Rhode Islander
New Englad	New Englander	Vermónt	Vermont

- 5) Some cities add -ite.

Dénver	Denverite
Móscow	Moscovite

- 6) Many regions as such add -erner.

The East	Easterner	The West	Westerner
The North	Northerner	The Middle West	Middle Westerner
The South	Southerner	The Midwest	Midwesterner

- 7) Some places drop a vowel or consonant and add -an or -n.

Hondúras	Honduran
Kańsas	Kansan
México	Mexican

- 8) Some places drop final -a, -al, -g or nothing and add -ese.

Burma	Burmése	Málta	Maltése
China	Chinése	Peking	Pekingése
Indo-China	Indo-Chinése	Portugal	Portuguése
Japán	Japanése	Sudán	Sudanése

- 9) Some places not covered in the above classes are the following:

England	Englishman	France	Frenchman
Holland	Dutchman	Greece	Greek
Ireland	Irishman		
Scotland	Scotsman	Germany	German
Wales	Welshman	Turkey	Turk
Argentina	Argentinian	Arábia	Arab
Belgium	Belgian	Denmark	Dane
Italy	Italian	Finland	Finn
Norway	Norwegian	Poland	Pole
Panama	Panamanian	Sweden	Swede
Peru	Peruvian	Europe	European
	Philippines	Filipino	

B. Discussion suggestions:

- 1) Can you generalize about—New England
The South
The Middle-West
Regions in your own country?
- 2) Can you characterize—The New Englander
The Southerner
The Californian
The New Yorker
The Bostonian
People from particular regions in your own country?

LESSON XXIX

VOCABULARY

A. A political science professor discusses American politics and political organization at a club meeting.

B. Special Problems

C. Topics for discussion

A. Politics and political organization in the U.S.

1 After the beginning of classes at Riverside City University, Tomás became a
2 member of the International Club. As a member of this organization he was able to
3 meet both American students and visitors from all over the world. To join the club
4 cost Tom one dollar.

5 One of the club's meetings during the fall semester was devoted to a discussion
6 of American politics. Professor Jones, who was also Tomás's advisor, had been in-
7 vited to talk about the subject. Tomás was asked to introduce him.

8 After the meeting the club was called to order. Tomás got up and introduced
9 Professor Jones. He said, "I am very happy to be able to introduce our speaker this
10 evening. Professor Jones has been at Riverside University since 1938. He did his
11 undergraduate work at the University of Wisconsin and received his M.A. and his Ph.D.
12 at Columbia University. He has published many articles and books in his field. He
13 is a member of several professional organizations and was vice-president of the Ameri-
14 can Historical Association in 1952. Professor Jones will speak to us this evening on
15 American politics and political organization."

16 Professor Jones rose from his seat and walked to the speaker's stand. He sur-
17 veyed his audience and said, "Thank you, Tom, for this fine introduction. I'm not
18 going to make a speech tonight. I'll just make a few informal remarks, and whenever
19 any of you want to interrupt me to ask a question or to ask for more detailed explana-
20 tion, go ahead and do so. That way we'll benefit more than from a formal lecture.

21 "I think perhaps the most important element in our governmental structure here
22 in the United States is the division of power. We have three branches of government—
23 the executive, the legislative, and the judicial—and each has enough power to prevent
24 abuses of power on the part of the other branches. No one branch is powerful enough
25 to succeed in abuses of its own.

26 "Let me explain what I mean. The executive branch, for example, which con-
27 sists of the president and his cabinet, can check the legislative branch, or Congress,
28 through the power of the veto. The legislative branch, on the other hand, can check
29 the executive branch by overriding a veto. The judicial branch, or the Supreme Court,
30 can check the other two branches of government by declaring a new law unconstitutional.
31 This system of checks and balances was put into the Constitution of the United States
32 in order to prevent the seizure of power by any one group. The system has worked
33 for over 180 years.

34 "For many Americans the really interesting subject connected with government is
35 not so much the structure of our political system as politics. But even politics doesn't
36 comprise as important a part of daily life in the United States as it does in many other
37 countries. Most Americans get stirred up about politics for about a month or two
38 before election, when they listen to speeches by political candidates over the radio or
39 television. Still, it's unusual for more than seventy percent of the electorate to vote
40 in even the national elections. Off-year elections frequently draw a light vote. After
41 the election, the excitement dies down and the attention of most people returns to

42 ordinary matters of life. Few people outside of professional politicians maintain an
43 interest in politics between elections.

44 "Visitors from other countries are often surprised to find such a comparative
45 indifference to politics in the United States. Students from foreign countries are es-
46 pecially surprised to find that college and university students in the U.S. don't have
47 much interest in politics.

48 "How many political parties do you have in the United States?" asked one of the
49 students from France.

50 "We have two major political groups," replied Professor Jones. "These are the
51 Republican Party, symbolized by an elephant, and the Democratic Party, symbolized
52 by a donkey. There are other parties, such as the Socialist, American Labor, or
53 Prohibition parties. These also run candidates to a prominent office in the national
54 government.

55 "To make generalizations about the classes of people, the theories and aims of
56 the two major parties is, of course, difficult and possibly misleading. For instance,
57 people commonly think that the Republicans represent conservatives and business men,
58 and that the Democrats represent liberals, farmers, and laborers. This is an over-
59 simplification. Many farmers in the Midwest, for example, lean toward the Republican
60 Party. Independent voters usually vote according to the candidate or the issues of a
61 particular campaign. In short, there is no definite list of characteristics for either
62 party.

63 "No doubt, you'll want to know something about Election Day in the United States
64 We go to the polls on the first Tuesday after the first Monday in November. Several
65 months before this date—usually in June or July but from 1955 on in August—represent-
66 tives of each party meet in one of the large cities like Philadelphia, Chicago, or San
67 Francisco to select the party's candidates. These meetings are national conventions,
68 primaries are held in some states to give people an opportunity to nominate candidates.

69 "A recent amendment to our Constitution stipulates that no president can be elect-
70 ed for more than two terms. We elect a president every four years. Representatives
71 in Congress are elected for a period of two years, and Senators for a period of six
72 years. One-third of the membership of the Senate is up for re-election every two
73 years. In addition to our national officers, we elect governors, members for the State
74 legislature, as well as county and city officials."

B. Special Problems.

24. No one branch is powerful enough ...

35. ... politics doesn't comprise as important a part of daily life ... as ...

42. Few people outside of professional politicians ...

65. ... but from 1955 on in August ...

72. One-third of the membership of the Senate is up for re-election every two years.

24. No one branch is powerful enough ...

Observe how no one may substitute for words like:

this, that, each, every, all

This branch is powerful enough ...

That man was strong enough ...

Every room is big enough ...

Each day has trouble enough ...

No one man is wise enough ...

Teacher: student, smart

Student A: No one student is smart enough to figure that out.

Teacher: day, long

Student B: No one day is long enough to finish my lessons.

Teacher: Country, self-sufficient.

Student C: No one country is self-sufficient enough to get along well without foreign trade.

Continue the exercise: library, good; room, large; class-hour, long.

35. ... politics does not comprise as important a part of daily life ... as ...

Observe the position of the phrases as + Class 3 + Class 1.

This is as interesting a lesson as I have ever seen.

This movie didn't have as happy an ending as the other.

John doesn't have as adventurous a life as Henry.

My book has as beautiful a binding as his.

Exercise:

Teacher: the brilliance of patterns of two dresses.

Student A: This dress has as brilliant a pattern as my sister's.

Teacher: the validity of a reason.

Student B: That is as valid a reason as any.

Teacher: the size of the mountain.

Student C: That is as big a mountain as I've ever seen.

Teacher: the length of a trip

Student D: That's as long a trip as I'd want to take.

Continue the exercise: the color of two dresses, the view from two houses,
the luxury of two cars.

42. Few people outside of professional politicians ...

Observe the following:

Few people outside of mathematicians are interested in calculus.

Few people outside of teachers study educational psychology.

Few people outside of fishermen are able to enjoy the silence of the forest.

No one outside of an expert can appreciate the complexity of his field.

Exercise:

Teacher: language teachers ... structure

Student A: Few people outside of language teachers understand the structure of a language.

Teacher: actor ... memorizing lines

Student B: No one outside of an actor knows the difficulty of memorizing lines.

Teacher: artist ... composition of a picture.

Student C: No one outside of an artist can fully appreciate the composition of a picture.

Continue the exercise: Automobile mechanics ... repair an engine; critics ...
detailed explanation of a poem; students ... study late at
night; technicians ... design of a machine.

65. ... but from 1955 on in August ...

Observe the special use of on, in regard to 1) time, and 2) place.

1)

It is vacation time now, but from next month on, I must work.

I am resting now, but from 8 o'clock on I must work.

There are good programs from 8 p.m. on.

2)

From that point on, the mountain becomes steep.

From this height on up, the ground is covered with snow.

From Indiana on west, the terrain is flatter.

Exercise:

Teacher: 7 o'clock.

Student A: From 7 o'clock on, I have to study.

Teacher: next week

Student B: From next week on, I'll go swimming for an hour each day.

Teacher: Mexico.

Student C: From Mexico on south you have the Latin American States.

Continue the exercise: next month, February 4th, Main Street, the railroad tracks, midnight.

72. One-third of the membership of the Senate is up for re-election every two years.

Observe the following:

The bill is up for debate.

The lieutenant is up for promotion.

The accused is up for sentencing today.

The case is up for examination today.

Exercise:

Teacher: president ... election.

Student A: The president is up for election this year.

Teacher: Mayor ... nomination.

Student B: The mayor is up for renomination this week.

Teacher: problem ... decision

Student C: The problem is up for a decision at this week's meeting.

Continue the exercise: candidate ... nomination; case ... examination.
professor ... promotion; judge ... re-election.
matter ... reconsideration.

C. Topics for discussion:

1. Questions for comprehension

- a. What information about Professor Jones did Tomás give in his instruction?
- b. What did Professor Jones say about procedure in his talk?
- c. What did Professor Jones mean when he said that in one sense our national government was a system of checks and balances?
- d. According to Professor Jones, are Americans very much politically minded? Explain.
- e. How many major political parties are there in the United States?
- f. How is a president elected in the United States?

2. Questions for conversation.

With reference to your own country, discuss one of the following topics:

- a. The system of government
- b. Political parties
- c. Political consciousness
- d. The election of a president, prime minister, etc.
- e. The voters.

LESSON XXX

VOCABULARY

Review previous lessons.

LESSON XXXI

VOCABULARY

- A. At the Newsstand: Newspapers and magazines in the United States
- B. Special problem: Exclamatory sentences
- C. Special problem: The news is interesting.
- D. Word formation
- E. Discussion

A. At the Newsstand

JEAN: Let's stop at this newsstand, Harry. I promised Father I'd bring him a copy of the Sunday Times.

HARRY: Do you mean the New York Times? I've seen it on sale in every city where I've been. Is it a national American newspaper?

JEAN: No, there is no national newspaper in the United States; that is, there is no one newspaper that expresses the opinion of the entire country. All our newspapers are local newspapers, though some include so much national news that they might be called national. The New York Times and the Chicago Tribune, for instance—or the New York Tribune—are almost national. You can buy them practically everywhere in the United States, and they devote only a comparatively small part of each issue to local New York or Chicago news.

HARRY: I see all three of them for sale here.

JEAN: We don't subscribe to the Times, but we always get this Sunday edition—mainly for the fine sections on books, art, and the theatre. Our family would be lost without it, but of course we have to take a local paper to know what's going on in our community.

HARRY: All American newspapers seem to be similar in format.

JEAN: Yes, that is more or less standardized.

HARRY: One of their distinctive marks seems to be the large front page headlines—so different from British newspapers that I have seen!

JEAN: Yes, that's so, isn't it! The headlines usually concern national or international news—unless some local happening makes the front page. The national and international news is supplied by one of the news services, such as the Associated Press or the United Press. Opinion—the editor's opinion, that is—is presented on the editorial page. Here he gives his view of happenings in the national or international scene or discusses some problem of state or local importance.

Then, the papers always include news of sports and business and social affairs. Small town newspapers usually have a column headed "locals"—bits of information about who has gone on vacation and where the Ladies' Aid is going to meet and who's had a baby shower!

HARRY: You've forgotten the comic strips!

JEAN: Oh, yes, of course, there are always the comics! Some readers, I'm told, turn to them before they even look at what's happening in the stock market!

HARRY: There seem to be newspapers here from all over the United States. Here's a Denver Post—and there's a Los Angeles Times—and there's the Emporia Gazette!

JEAN: In large metropolitan newsstands you'll find many more newspapers than there are here. They have papers from practically everybody's hometown!

HARRY: So a person in New York or Chicago can keep informed on the activities of the Oshkosh woman's club or the Missoula sewing-bee!

JEAN: Of course! That's the splendid thing about modern communication!

But here's a newspaper that we shouldn't overlook—the Christian Science Monitor. It used to be chiefly a religious publication, and even now it is cleaner than most other newspapers. That is, it doesn't give prominence to scandal as some papers do. It is one of our most authoritative sources of information and honest opinion on national and international affairs.

HARRY: And how many magazines there are on sale here! How do Americans ever find time to read them all?

JEAN: They don't, of course. Most people read an authoritative weekly news magazine such as Time or Newsweek, to keep up on national and international affairs. That's practically a necessity. They may read one or two magazines of general interest, and then they read other magazines that deal with their special hobby or activity.

HARRY: There surely seem to be many of them!

JEAN: There's practically no activity or interest that doesn't have at least one magazine devoted to it. There are magazines for racing-car enthusiasts and for expectant mothers, for do-it-yourself addicts and for opera goers, for camera fans and for vacationers, for women who want to look more glamorous and for business men who want to be more successful! Some of them are fly-by-night ventures that take advantage of some passing fad; others are well-established, reputable publications.

HARRY: What magazines do you parents subscribe to?

JEAN: We take Harper's, for one. That is one of the oldest American magazines—that and the Atlantic. Both of them contain articles on matters of current and continuing interest. They contain fiction too and some poetry, and comments on recent books. Their appeal is mainly to professional, educated Americans. They are dignified magazines, rather conservative in format, and rather expensive. Of course, they don't have so large a circulation as such magazines as the Reader's Digest or the Saturday Evening Post.

HARRY: What an amusing cover that is on the Post!

JEAN: Yes, the Post is very popular for its humor—its jokes and cartoons, and also for its stories by well-known writers. It contains articles too, dealing with national and international affairs, but it treats these matters in a popular manner, rather than in the more serious and scholarly manner of the Nation or the New Republic.

HARRY: Isn't the Post one of your oldest magazines too?

JEAN: Yes, Benjamin Franklin is supposed to have been its founding father! See, there's his picture above the table of contents.

HARRY: Here's the New Yorker. That's famous for its humor too, isn't it?

JEAN: Yes, it aims at sophisticated humor. Its worldly-wise stories and articles and its satirical cartoons give it a large circulation among university-educated Americans, and also a rather large general circulation.

HARRY: Do you know what I find most interesting about American magazines? —Their advertisements. They reveal so much about American interest and American life.

JEAN: That reminds me of what the English novelist Norman Douglas wrote: "You can tell the ideals of a nation by its advertisements."

B. Special Problem: Exclamatory sentences

Note the word order in exclamatory sentences:

What an amusing cover	THAT	IS!
What a cold day	IT	IS!
How warm	IT	IS!
How amusing	THAT PICTURE	IS!
How expensive	THAT MAGAZINE	IS!
How cold	HE	LOOKS!
How awkwardly	HE	WALKS!
How carelessly	SHE	SPEAKS!
What a fine voice	THAT BOY	HAS!
How many magazines	THERE	ARE!
How few policemen	THERE	ARE!

C. Special Problem: The news is interesting.

The news is supplied by the Associated Press.
The news is distressing.
No news is good news! (Old saying)
The news reaches us every day.

News takes a singular verb.

D. Word Formation: Note the formation of Class 1 words from Class 2 words:

<u>CLASS 2</u>	<u>CLASS 1</u>
circulate	circulation
publish	publication
communicate	communication
inform	information
describe	description
separate	_____
cultivate	_____
transport	_____
civilize	_____

List further examples of Class 2 words that form Class 1 words by the addition of the suffix "tion."

Use the words in sentences:
The magazine circulates among university students.
It has a large circulation.

<u>CLASS 2</u>	<u>CLASS 1</u>
advertise	advertisement
establish	establishment
agree	agreement
excite	_____
govern	_____
embarrass	_____
measure	_____
improve	_____

List further examples of Class 2 words that form Class 1 words by the addition of the suffix "ment."

Use the words in sentences:
I advertised my car in the newspaper.
I placed an advertisement in the paper.

E. Discussion

The instructor will bring to class (from the library or elsewhere) copies of such magazines as Fortune, Holiday, National Geographic, Saturday Review, Woman's Home Companion, Life, Vogue, Esquire, Etude, Popular Mechanics, as well as those mentioned in the reading, and will distribute the magazine to the class.

Questions and Discussion:*

1. Where can one buy magazines in an American city?
2. How much does the National Geographic cost per copy?
3. Is Esquire a weekly or a monthly magazine?
4. Where is the Atlantic published?
5. Who is the editor of the Saturday Review?
6. What is a table of contents? Find it in your magazine.
7. In what order are the entries arranged in the table of contents?
8. What material is contained on the editorial page?
9. Compare the format of Fortune with that of Collier's.
10. What aspects of life do typical American jokes and cartoons deal with? Husband and wife? Children? In-laws? Entertainment? Office work?
11. Do you agree with Norman Douglas that one can tell the ideals of a nation by its advertisements?

Give specific examples from the magazine advertisements before you.

*Use the magazine titles indicated or substitute others.

LESSON XXXII

VOCABULARY

I. Education in the United States

The education of every American child, whatever the child's race or social class, is a public responsibility which is accepted without question in the United States. Beginning at the age of six, and continuing until the age of sixteen (or, in some states, until the age of fourteen) each child in the country is compelled by law to attend a public or private school; and parents who do not send their children to school are punished as offenders against the public welfare.

Although education in the United States is a public responsibility, the individual school system in each community is not controlled by the national government nor, to any great extent, by the state government. The actual control of a school system belongs to the Board of Education, which the people of the community elect.

The administrative officer of each school system is the superintendent of schools. The superintendent of schools receives a salary and directly supervises all of the public schools in his district. The principal and the teachers of each public school in the district are responsible to the superintendent.

In some of the larger cities the members of the Board of Education, like the superintendent, receive salaries, but in smaller American communities men and women serve for honor and prestige only. The Board of Education is a powerful element in almost every town; and in many towns the election of Board members causes much political excitement.

Since educational policies are so largely controlled by local authorities the details of school organization differ in various communities and states. For example, some states, such as the state of New York, have developed a system of central or consolidated schools which is gradually making the rural one-room school obsolete.

According to the central school system, several villages, each of which is too small to afford a separate educational organization, pool their resources to build and maintain a large, modern, and well-equipped school building to which the children of each village are transported by buses. Each village shares the expenses of this well-equipped central school, and in this way rural and village children receive advantages equal to, and often superior to, those enjoyed by city children.

Teachers and principals attend state and national conventions annually. Teachers' conventions are characterized by two kinds of activity: first, there are speakers of educational importance who give formal speeches; and second, there are discussions of special problems by the teachers of particular fields.

The public elementary schools, which usually consist of eight grades, teach the fundamentals of reading, writing, geography, history, science, and mathematics and prepare children for the work of the secondary schools. The secondary schools provide four years preparation for college or for practical jobs. In some cities, children attend an elementary school for six years, a junior high school for three years, and a high school for three years. The term "public school" usually refers to a public elementary or secondary school although there are several colleges (especially teachers' colleges) and junior colleges which are also supported by the public.

In addition to those public schools there are private elementary and secondary schools which offer courses similar to those provided by the public institutions. There are two principal kinds of private schools: (1) those organized by religious groups (often called parochial schools) and (2) those organized by private individuals.

Religious instruction is not given in public schools in the United States. However, parents who prefer to send their children to private schools where religious instruction is provided are free to do so. Parochial schools usually charge tuition fees, and in addition to religious courses also provide courses which meet the standards set by the public schools.

The second type of private school, that is, the school organized by private individuals, must also meet public school standards. Private day schools (which students attend during class hours only) are often co-educational; most boarding schools are for boys or girls exclusively. The average fee for attendance at a private boarding school is approximately \$1,000 per year.

No profession has written more about itself than the educational profession. Hundreds of magazines and thousands of books are published annually on this subject; it will not be difficult for the interested visitor to find abundant information about developments in American education.

II. Discussion: Students engage in a panel discussion. The discussion may include points like the following:

1. What organization ultimately controls education in the United States?
2. What organization ultimately controls education in your country?
3. How many years of schooling are necessary for University (College level) entrance in the U.S.?
4. How many years of schooling are necessary for University (College level) in your country?

III. New expressions. The word back. Observe the following expressions:

1. He returned at 6 o'clock. He came back at 6 o'clock.
2. I returned the book to John. I gave the book back to John.
3. The executive dictated the letter. His secretary read it to him. His secretary read it back.
4. I borrowed a book from the library. I returned it. I took it back.

The word back in these examples is used in the sense of return. The last three examples are grammatically similar to the expressions in Lesson XXV. Notice the following sentences:

I took back the book. I took it back.
I took _____ the book back.

LESSON XXXIII

VOCABULARY

I. Government and Politics

The most significant element in the governmental organization of the United States is its emphasis upon the division of power. Each of the three branches of government, executive, legislative, and judicial, has enough power to prevent abuses of power on the part of the other branches; but no one branch is powerful enough to succeed in abuses of its own.

The details of this system of checks and balances are familiar to citizens of democracies, and the function of each of the three branches of government in checking and balancing the others is also well-known.

The executive branch (the president and his cabinet) can check the legislative branch (Congress) by the power of the veto. The legislative branch can check the executive branch by voting over the veto. The judicial branch (the Supreme Court) can check both branches of government by declaring an act unconstitutional.

For many Americans, the most interesting subject connected with government is politics, although politics does not comprise as absorbing a part of daily life in the United States as it does in many other countries. Most Americans are excited about politics for about a month before election, when speeches by political candidates monopolize the radio programs, and political topics are prominent subjects of newspaper headlines and editorials.

After the election, however, the excitement soon subsides, and the attention of most Americans turns to other subjects. There are comparatively few people in the United States (except those in governmental positions) who maintain a violent interest in politics between elections. Even for national elections it is unusual for more than seventy percent of the voters to go to the polls.

People from other countries are often surprised to find such a comparative indifference to politics in the United States. They are especially surprised to find that college and university students lack interest in politics, and to find that in general, American women, who have had voting privileges since 1919, neither know nor care very much about politics.

The two major political groups in the United States are the Republican Party (symbolized in newspaper cartoons by the elephant) and the Democratic Party (symbolized by the donkey). Other less prominent parties (for example, the Socialist Party, the American Labor Party and the Prohibition Party) exist and their candidates run at election time; but no candidate of any minor party has yet been elected to a prominent office in the national government.

Generalizations concerning the classes of people, theories, and aims which each party represents are difficult to make. For example, to say that the Republicans represent the business man and the industrial North while the Democrats represent the farmer, the laborer, and the South, does not account for the thousands of Northern Democrats and Southern Republicans, or the Republican farmers. In other words, there is no definite list of characteristics for either party.

Election Day in the United States is the first Tuesday after the first Monday in November. Sometimes before the date (frequently in June or July) representatives of each

party meet to choose the party's candidates. These meetings are called National Conventions. In addition to these national conventions, primaries are held in some states in order to provide an opportunity for the people of the state to nominate candidates.

Government Services

The average United States citizen usually takes his government for granted. Although he becomes excited about the candidates who ran for election, and although he criticizes the way in which the country is run, he generally knows very little about the technical organization of government services. A few agencies, however, touch his life directly.

Dr. Peters, for example, used to know a great deal about the Postal Savings. When he was a young man, before he opened a bank account, he used to take his weekly savings to the post office, because they feel that no organization can offer better security than their national government.

Another government service which directly affects Dr. Peters' life is the Weather Bureau. The Weather Bureau operates a system of observatories, collects observations, analyzes them and issues reports to farmers, aviators, mariners, etc. Airway stations report indications hourly, other stations report daily. Both types of stations provide important warnings of hurricanes, storms, and floods. In war time, of course, this government service is extremely important.

The daily lives of American families are affected by the Food and Drug Administration. The Pure Food laws require the inspection and analysis of samples of food products. This agency also insists that manufacturers label their food products correctly to let the public know exactly what ingredients each product contains. Similar regulations control the sale of cosmetics and drugs. The newspapers occasionally publish spectacular articles about frauds which have been detected by the Food and Drug Administration.

Dr. Peters knows about the Smithsonian Institution, but he has never gone to Washington to visit it. This is a very large project which was made possible by James Smithsonian, who left his wealth to the United States. He requested the founding of an institution "for the increase and diffusion of knowledge among men," and the project which resulted from this request is as broad as the request itself. The activities of the Institution include work in Fine Arts, Ethnology, Zoology, and many other arts and sciences.

American business life is affected by the Patent Office, which examines applications for patents, judges appeals, and issues publications. The first patent laws were made in 1790; since that time, the Patent Office has had an interesting history and has developed an efficient system of laboratories and libraries.

II. Discussion: Students engage in a panel discussion. The discussion may include points like the following:

1. What are the essential features of the government of the United States?
2. What are the essential features of the government of your country?
3. What are the differences between the United States government and the government of your country?
4. What is the two-party system?

III. New expressions:

Observe the following expressions.

1. World War II caused a change in the economic status of Europe. It brought about a change.

2. He postponed his trip to Cuba. . He put it off.
3. Please write your name, address, and other information on these forms. Please fill the forms out.
4. A. Shall we test this lesson?
B. Yes, let's try it out.
5. The teacher indicated the mistake. She pointed it out.

These examples are grammatically similar to the examples in Lesson XXV. Observe the following sentences:

She pointed out the mistake.

She pointed it out.

She pointed the mistake out.

LESSON XXXIV

VOCABULARY

I. Music in the United States.

Like the histories of other arts in the United States, the history of music is brief. It is necessary to state again that the people of early eras were practical people, busy with problems of survival, and not receptive to artistic activity. Even after the United States had acquired a national government and some degree of security, it was easier to use ready-made musical imports than to create a native product.

There was no important composer in the United States before the 19th century. When talented composers finally did develop, they were unable to get adequate musical training in the United States; consequently, the first composers spent many years in the musical centers of Europe, where they acquired a natural admiration for European technique and European subjects. The music of these first composers, therefore, was not characteristically American.

Later composers, for example, Edward McDowell, H. F. Gilbert, and C. W. Cadman, looked for native themes in Indian music and negro spirituals. Many others have found inspiration in jazz.

Since visitors from other countries know more about jazz than about other developments in the music of the United States, little will be said here about this significant subject, except to mention the outstanding contribution of George Gershwin, who has transferred the values of jazz to "serious" music.

Prominent figures in musical history whose names are less familiar to visitors are Aaron Copland, Deems Taylor, Roy Harris, and William Schuman.

Although many Americans enjoy imported operatic compositions, and although radio broadcasts of opera programs are popular, opera has never been a very successful form of indigenous musical expression in the United States. Gershwin's folk-opera, "Porgy and Bess," is an outstanding exception. In the field of light opera, however, there are many popular composers, for example, Victor Herbert, Reginald De Koven, Sigmund Romberg, Jerome Kern, and Irving Berlin.

A few contemporary singers deserve special mention. Perhaps the most interesting are the negro singers, Paul Robeson, Marian Anderson, Dorothy Maynor, and Roland Hayes. The people of the United States are still impressed by foreign names, and many native musical artists assume European names because of the popular impression that imported musicians are best.

Although the United States has not yet reached musical maturity, there have been at least two important indications of growth during the twentieth century: first, the development of and emphasis upon music education in the public schools; and, second, the rise of the symphony orchestra.

During the past fifteen years American educators have recognized the need for an increased appreciation of fine music. With the new leisure provided by industrialization, there is opportunity for aesthetic activity. The schools are therefore attempting to encourage musically talented students to develop their talents. Courses in vocal and instrumental music have become a significant part of the school curriculum; orchestras, bands,

and choruses, supervised by trained teachers, are stimulating participation in musical activities.

Moreover, music education is not confined to the talented. Students who lack the ability to participate in orchestras or choruses are acquiring a taste for fine music through courses in music appreciation.

A second indication of increasing interest in music is the rise of the symphony orchestra. Since 1842, when the Philharmonic Society of New York was established, the number of symphony orchestras has increased to more than fifty. These fifty include some of the finest instrumental organizations in the world. The orchestras of six cities, New York, Philadelphia, Boston, Chicago, Minneapolis, and Cleveland, are especially prominent; but even comparatively small cities have ambitious and capable symphony orchestras.

There are three ways of listening to symphony orchestras in the United States: one can attend concerts in city auditoriums or on university campuses; one can listen to the radio broadcasts of these concerts; or one can obtain recordings of musical compositions played by the best symphony orchestras in the country. The tremendous increase in the sale of symphony records during the past ten years indicates a rapidly growing appreciation of fine music in the United States.

II. Discussion: Students engage in a panel discussion. The discussion may include points like the following:

1. What are the various types of music popular in the United States?
2. What kinds of music are popular in your country?
3. What types of folk music are popular in the United States?
4. What in your country compares with folk music in the United States?

III. New expressions:

Observe the following sentences:

1. I am going to investigate this problem. I'll look into the problem.
2. I met a friend by accident this morning. I ran into him this morning.
3. We hope to have a good time at the program. We are looking forward to the program.
4. Be careful! A car is coming. Look out for the car!

Notice that these expressions are grammatically somewhat different from the expressions introduced in Lessons XXV to XXXIII.

A. Examples 1 and 2 follow the pattern:

I'll look into the problem.
I'll look into it.

B. Examples 3 and 4 follow the pattern:

Look out for the car!
Look out for it!
Look out!



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